

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1881.

The Week.

THE Albany *Morning Express*, the organ of "the Machine," has undertaken to answer our remark that nobody outside the circle of Mr. Thomas C. Platt's personal acquaintance "knows what he thinks on any public question." The *Express* says we are greatly mistaken. It alleges that "there is not an intelligent person in the State who does not know the opinions of the Hon. Thomas C. Platt on many public questions," and that "as he has never concealed his opinions or prevaricated with regard thereto . . . there is not the slightest reason for doubt on the subject." It then proceeds to furnish the desired information itself in this wise:

"We can affirm, without fear of contradiction, that the Hon. Thomas C. Platt believes in that sort of Republicanism so grandly illustrated during the Administration of President Grant, and that he does not believe in the enervated and enfeebled sort languidly affected by the present nerveless Administration."

This it declares to be "an ample statement conclusive of the entire subject, because inclusive thereof." One thing about it is certain, and that is that it is the only statement on the subject we are ever likely to get. It comes as near being an account of Platt's opinions as is possible. No account of a "worker's" opinions is ever any more lucid. If you ask him for them he will always refer you back to his Boss, whoever he may be, and say that his opinions are the same as the Boss's, and if you cannot find out what the Boss's are, so much the worse for you. We presume no man has ever gone from this State to the United States Senate with so little mental baggage of any kind as Mr. Platt.

The Republican contingent in the next Senate has been still further determined during the week either by agreement in caucus or by election. In New Jersey Mr. Robeson's strength has proved inferior to that of General Sewell, whose political services have hitherto been confined to the State Senate, and who, being superintendent of a local branch of the Pennsylvania Railroad, has, justly or unjustly, been regarded as the "railroad candidate." Whatever his capacity may prove to be, New Jersey will be well represented, so far as ability goes, while Mr. Robeson retains his seat in the lower House. "Boss" Keyes, we are glad to say, has been signally defeated in Wisconsin, but his successful rival, Sawyer, has such slender natural qualifications for the United States Senate that one feels acutely here, as in so many other instances, that our choice of public men tends steadily to lie between the Machine and Money. Mr. Oliver is another candidate who, but that he is a capitalist, would not in a right-minded State be thought of for the place to which he aspires. The contest between him and Mr. Grow has been of the most stubborn character, and, as we write, it seems as if neither could prevail; but amid the plentiful lack of great men in Pennsylvania what sort of compromise candidate is likely to emerge from the struggle? A Stalwart correspondent, writing to a daily paper in this city from Philadelphia, thinks it due to Mr. Oliver to say that "he has made an earnest and skilful canvass" on his own behalf, to the surprise of many, who now confess "that he would doubtless display a capacity in the Senate creditable to himself and to the State." He has, in other words, given evidence of the stuff of which Bosses are made.

The Refunding Bill, minus the section which provided for reducing the coin in the Treasury to \$50,000,000 by purchase of maturing bonds, passed the House of Representatives on Wednesday week and is now before the Senate, where it is expected that the annual rate of interest on the new bonds will be fixed at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., or that the time which the bonds are to run will be extended. The week was not remarkably eventful in Wall Street. The banks still add to their reserve by the return of currency from the interior, and about \$2,700,000 in foreign gold arrived early in the week, but the money demand of speculation is so large that the surplus reserve shows little increase—less

than \$100,000 during the week. The rates for bills on London at one time warranted gold imports, but at the close they were too high for profitable importation. The telegraphic consolidation was obstructed during the week by a temporary injunction, which may be made permanent before the time for the final action of the stockholders of the companies in interest. Speculation at the Stock Exchange continued lively so far as railroad stocks were concerned until about the middle of the week, when a downward reaction began and wiped out a good part of the early advance. An incident of the speculation was a controversy on the question whether the Central Pacific Railroad will be permitted to pay the February dividend of 3 per cent. which the directors have declared. Washington despatches to the daily press report Auditor French as saying that there was a deficit of \$1,623,000 on June 1 last in the amount necessary to pay the Government under the Thurman act and the dividend of 3 per cent. declared on that six months' business, and therefore the company must not pay the February dividend, although earned during the last six months. The officers of the company have not received any notice of the kind from Auditor French, and assert that after paying the Government in full the company earned 3 per cent. and a surplus, not only during the last six months, but for every six months when a dividend has been declared. As we go to press the contest is undecided. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to 51 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per ounce, but closed at 51 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was \$0.8585.

The Democrats seem to be repeating some of their old mistakes in refusing to make the proposed provision for General Grant by putting him on the retired list of the Army with the rank of General. The Committee of the House has refused to report in favor of it; and in the Senate on Monday the majority, by cutting off the debate on the bill introduced by General Logan, indicated pretty clearly that they did not intend to press it on this Congress. Senator Bayard made the only suggestion which looked like favoring it, by saying that General Grant's case would be more properly dealt with when action was taken, which, he thought, would probably be soon, on the proposal to make a general provision in the nature of a pension for all ex-Presidents. All this is unfortunate, because it is useless for the Democrats to expect that they will, in opposing any national favor to General Grant, get credit for any higher motive than dislike of the man who brought the war to a successful close. Consequently, by so doing, they increase the strongest obstacle to their own return to power, without any corresponding gain. General Grant has extraordinary claims on the Government, so extraordinary that there is no appreciable danger that the satisfaction of them would establish an inconvenient precedent. Mr. Vest's objection, based on General Grant's turning politician, and allowing himself to be carried from stump to stump, during the last canvass, to harangue against the character and motives of nearly half his countrymen, has no doubt a certain strength, but it is one of those objections which the Democrats, if they had any of their old wisdom, would not dwell upon. Nothing would help them so much now as a little display of magnanimity and of contempt for trifles.

Mr. Dawes has been re-elected to the Senate by the Massachusetts Legislature, practically without opposition. Colonel Higginson made a speech in which, if he did not oppose the nomination, he criticised it somewhat severely on the ground that Massachusetts does not possess the weight in the Senate to which she is entitled, owing to Mr. Dawes's want of "sufficient calibre." He pointed out that the Senator had not gained in power during the last six years, which carried him from fifty-eight to sixty-four, and asked with much force whether he is likely to gain between sixty-four and seventy. He mentioned Chief-Justice Gray as a good man to succeed Mr. Dawes, and also Messrs. W. A. Field and Henry L. Pierce and Governor Long, but the suggestions did not seem to find much favor with the caucus. There is no doubt that great, like good, men are scarce in Massachusetts as well as elsewhere, and cannot be had by advertising, but Massachusetts people, when they compare their representation in the Senate with that of other States,

may well be thankful. We are not admirers of Mr. Dawes, but Colonel Higginson has overlooked the qualification of a long and laborious experience of public life which Mr. Dawes possesses, and which may be fairly set off against many defects, and which will unquestionably increase during the next six years. It is a quality, too, which is not so highly regarded by American constituencies as to make it safe to belittle it in any particular case. By the way, what signs of growth have there been about Senator Hoar which Senator Dawes has not displayed? Colonel Higginson intimates that there is a marked difference between them, but we can recall nothing in which Mr. Dawes has been outstripped by his colleague, except in excitement over the Whittaker case.

The House Committee on Manufactures have adopted a very wild bill "To regulate the manufacture and sale of articles of human food and drink." It will be enough to cite the authority which it gives to "any one in any State" who suspects "any person, company, association, or corporation" of having transported or imported for sale any article of food adulterated either poisonously or unwholesomely, or with cheaper substances, to call for "a sample for analysis by a chemist," under penalty of one hundred dollars' fine in case of refusal. No guaranty is required that the sample be used for the purpose for which it is demanded, nor that the chemist be competent, nor is the chemist designated in any way; so that the number of poor families that would be kept in "articles of human food and drink" by persistent calling for samples, baffles conjecture. The rest of the bill is of a piece with this, and the whole shows not a vestige of scientific or legal sense in its composition. A very guarded measure, on the other hand, prepared by an eminent committee of experts appointed by the National Board of Trade, has been presented to Congress by this body, with a memorial begging its enactment. Surgeon Billings, vice-president of the National Board of Health, was the chairman, and his colleagues were President Chandler of the New York Board of Health, ex-Chancellor Williamson of New Jersey, and Mr. A. H. Hardy, a well-known Boston merchant. The bill carefully discriminates between National and State jurisdiction, leaving room for State legislation to meet the case of the *manufacture* of adulterated drugs and food. It is simple and perspicuous in every part, and entirely definite in its provisions for analysis. The National Board of Health is made the controlling authority in giving effect to the act, as it ought to be, and the bill is at least worthy of respectful consideration by Congress, which the Beale bill (namely, that fathered by the Committee on Manufactures) is not.

Under the caption—"One of Sherman's Rewards: The Louisville whiskey trade protesting against Collector Buckner's removal"—the New York Times prints a despatch describing the consternation "in whiskey circles" in Kentucky at the prospect of a new collector when everything is going on so swimmingly with the old, and when "scores of new distilleries are springing up in every direction." Liquor men of all classes, we are told, have petitioned for the retention of Col. Buckner, and allege that the fact of his being "an uncompromising Grant man" is at the bottom of the Secretary's action in displacing him, especially as the new appointee, a Mr. Wilson, "started out a rampant Grant man, and then went over to Sherman." Wilson's position, too, as manager of the Republican daily paper in Louisville, "entitles him to public pap of some sort." We know nothing of the facts of the case, but the alarm of the new distilleries in particular does not strike us as a very forcible argument against a change, and we cannot help being impressed with the outward analogy of the whole situation to that in St. Louis under the Whiskey Ring. We are confirmed in this view by the further statement of the despatch that "Col. Buckner and his son are really the backbone and ribs of the Republican organization here, and their abandonment would be to shatter the foothold gained locally in November last, when they and Col. Tom Burns almost carried the district." Not only are we perfectly convinced that no internal-revenue service can be sound in a whiskey district which combines the work of inspection and collection with running the political Machine, but we have not forgotten that the exposure of the St. Louis Ring was staved off repeatedly by just such assurances that they were indispensable to the Republican party in Missouri. Is "history repeating itself"?

The Chicago *Tribune* has a very silly article in answer to our objection to Mr. Blaine as Secretary of State that he is not a lawyer. We mentioned this as one of several objections to him, and serious because one of several, though in the absence of the others it might have little weight. Mr. Blaine, the *Tribune* says, "has been more than a lawyer; he is a law-maker. He has been engaged in making laws for attorneys to haggle about and construe during a long and brilliant public career, and we have not heard that a greater proportion of the legislation shaped or recommended by him was found defective than of that put through in opposition to his views." Pray, what legislation did he ever "shape" or "recommend"? We know of no legislation with which he is associated except that for the benefit of the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railroad. His attempts to argue law points, constitutional and other, in the Senate have ended very unfortunately. There is, in fact, nothing of the law-maker or lawyer in his mind or character. He is essentially a rockety, journalistic kind of man, fond of rows and sensations, and would be a most unsafe person to put in among the costly and fragile china of the State Department. It is now denied that General Garfield offered him the place. It begins to look a little as if "feelers" were being put out from Mentor in the shape of rumors, and it is not a bad plan either.

The local event of the week has been the erection of the Alexandrine obelisk on its pedestal in Central Park. The upsetting of the huge monolith took place at noon on Saturday, with the least possible ceremony and without the smallest hitch in the working of the apparatus, which was the same used by Captain Goringe in lowering the obelisk prior to its removal to this country. The bronze crabs at the base have yet to be placed in position, and the formal "unveiling"—if this term can be used of an already naked monument—is fixed, we believe, for February 22. Doubtless on that occasion there will be some opportunity for speech-making, when we are sure that justice will be done to the indomitable perseverance, the sleepless vigilance, and the absolute precaution of the naval officer who conceived and has executed so brilliantly this most difficult, hazardous, and we might almost say thankless, undertaking. The public, unfamiliar with the obstacles thrown in Captain Goringe's way since the *Dessoug* arrived in port—the desire of those whose services he needed in docking and transporting the obelisk to gain not glory but exorbitant profits by their connection with it, the indifference of the city authorities, and the red-tape of a Park Commissioner—has thought only of the slowness in moving the ponderous mass more than two miles and (perforce) up a long incline of trestle-work to a position over the pedestal. It is enough to say that, with all the drawbacks, no similar engineering feat has ever been accomplished with half the celerity, and that the achievement does infinite credit to American skill and enterprise.

Very positive fault was found in advance with the choice of a site. The French example of setting obelisks in the centre of a broad plaza, at a distance from any buildings of overshadowing proportions, was cited as a reason for preferring the concourse at the Fifth Avenue entrance to the Park. But this analogy was imperfect, and the result of adhering to it could only have been to dwarf the obelisk, whatever the concourse might have gained by the ornament. Spectators of the erection last week must have been struck with the wisdom of selecting a gentle knoll for the site. The importance of the monument is vastly increased; it becomes a landmark seen from a great distance; and it loses nothing by its proximity to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, while the association on the other hand is most fit and natural. Not only will the one attract visitors to the other, but that protection which the obelisk may, while yet a novelty, need from the irrepressible vandalism of collectors, can be more easily and cheaply afforded by the outer guardians of the Museum.

The British Ministry, having got rid of the debate on the address, has introduced the first of its Irish bills, and unfortunately this is the Coercion Bill. The Land Bill, Mr. Gladstone says, will not be ready to be produced even in outline for some days. Mr. Forster brought in the Coercion Bill on Monday, amidst great excitement, and supported it with a vehement speech, in which he announced the intention to "strike terror" into the Land-Leaguers who were striking terror into others. The

bill is practically simply a suspension of the habeas corpus, tacked on to the existing law, which enables the Lord Lieutenant by "proclaiming" a district to charge it with the maintenance of additional police. He is to have the power to arrest all persons suspected of treason, sedition, or intimidation, between now and the 30th of next September—in the case of treason, retrospectively and anywhere; in other cases, prospectively and in proclaimed districts only. Mr. Forster, in introducing it, declared with much pathos that had he known he would have to introduce such a bill he never would have accepted his present office. He probably could not have made a confession more pleasing to the Parnellites, because one of their objects is to make the administration of Irish government too odious a task for any English statesman, and they chuckle over the weariness and disgust even of a conscientious and well-meaning man like Mr. Foster. They are probably especially delighted by it because the practice of giving the Irish Secretaryship to Englishmen, which Whigs and Tories alike follow, is one of their pet grievances, and, it must be admitted, a good one. The Beaconsfield Ministry made the practice as offensive as was possible to Irishmen of all shades of opinion by giving it to a Mr. James Lowther, a rollicking "swell" in London society, who has been called the Tony Lumpkin of the Conservative party, and who amused himself in the House by chaffing the Irish members and expressing his contempt for everything Irish—diversions, however, which, though probably highly esteemed at the Carlton Club, lost him his seat at York afterwards.

The bill resembles a score of others passed on similar provocation for the suppression of Irish disorder during the present century, and would not of itself probably excite much sensation. But it promises to be a very serious affair, for two reasons. One is that this time the Government, by promising a land bill which will interfere with the rights of property to an unprecedented degree, confesses that the disorders have a great deal of excuse in the condition of the people, and deprives coercion of a part of its excuse. The other is that the Irish members will resist its passage by "obstruction," and will be aided in this by a portion of the English Radicals, and probably will have the sympathy of a considerable body of English voters; and to overcome this obstruction startling changes will have to be introduced into the procedure of the House. The one most talked of is the "clôture," as it is the fashion to call it, borrowed from the French, and which is neither more nor less than our "previous question," or the closing of debate by a majority vote, which it is proposed to make a two-thirds vote. The hesitation about adopting this is greatly due to the fact that the Executive may be said to sit in the House and have large control of the procedure already, through its control of legislation, and there is a natural shrinking from any addition to its powers which would enable it at any time to muzzle the minority.

In fact the obstruction has begun over a resolution of Mr. Gladstone's giving precedence to the bill over other business, and is pending at this writing, one Irish member, Mr. Biggar, a North of Ireland pork-dealer, having already fallen a victim to the new rule, which authorizes the Speaker to "name" a member for obstruction, and then enables the House to suspend him during the remainder of the sitting by a majority vote. In the various divisions on the dilatory motions of the Irish members which followed, the Obstructives only mustered from thirty to thirty-five votes, showing that in this the Parnellites have no English and Liberal-Irish help. After the passage of this resolution probably decisive steps will be taken against obstruction. The Parnellites offer as some justification of their course the fact that if the Coercion Bill is passed the tenantry will be left at the mercy of the landlords, and evictions which have been stopped by the "boycotting" process will be resumed on a great scale, and they cite the Disturbance Bill which was thrown out by the House of Lords as an acknowledgment by the Ministry themselves of the reasonableness of this alarm. The excitement caused by the debates has been intensified by the failure of the jury to agree in the Dublin trials. Ten appear to have stood for acquittal. This is, of course, a great triumph and encouragement to Parnell, but it was expected from the beginning; the whole attitude of the Ministry on the Irish question made conviction impossible, and proved that the prosecution was a mistake. Mr. Froude

has made another contribution to the controversy in the shape of a fresh chapter in his 'English in Ireland,' and it is as valuable as the previous ones. He again recommends Cromwellian government by major-generals, but admits that this is impossible, and therefore suggests the restoration of Irish independence. Nothing could better illustrate the permanence of Irish bad luck than the fact that the country should have become an attractive subject to Mr. Froude.

This is, however, but the least of Mr. Gladstone's difficulties. The Land Bill itself threatens a division among his followers so serious as to split even the Cabinet itself. A powerful section of the Liberals, in and out of Parliament, insist on the Irish trouble, which has now lasted two centuries, being settled once for all by what they call a "drastic measure," which will give the "three Fs" to the tenantry and make some provision for the growth of a peasant proprietary. The Scotch and North of England constituencies, among which Mr. Gladstone's strength chiefly lies, are eager for the drastic treatment, because they are no whit afraid of its effect on English land-tenures, and they are supposed to be represented in the Cabinet by Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, and probably Mr. Fawcett. The Whig section of the party, on the other hand, which is led by the Marquis of Hartington, the Duke of Argyll, Earl Granville, and Sir Vernon Harcourt, shrinks from any interference with the rights of property in Ireland which would be likely to prove an inconvenient precedent in England. Between the two Mr. Gladstone stands a chance of being torn to pieces. The Radical temper was not soothed by hearing that the new bill was to be simply an extension of the Act of 1870, and it is daily sharpened by rumors that Mr. Gladstone, with the love of age for peace with those with whom one comes most in contact, inclines to fall in with the Whig view.

The Powers, arbitration having failed, have succeeded in arranging for another conference at Constantinople about the Greek question, and it is to meet, it is said, on the 22d. But Greece is not to be represented at it, and is to be informed that if she refuses to accept the decision the Powers will wash their hands of her. What concessions Turkey is to make do not yet appear, but she will probably concede a good deal at other points in order to be able to retain Janina and Metsovo. Greece is probably prejudiced abroad by the accounts of her army. She has, or will soon have, 72,000 men under arms, and proposes to fight in the spring; but the men have not yet been brigaded, and no commissariat, transport, or hospital service has been organized, and the assistance of foreign officers is generally refused. The Greeks, too, do not effectively conceal their belief that if the worst comes to the worst the Powers cannot permit them to be conquered and will forbid the Turks to invade their territory. They reply to European military criticisms in a way which shows that they are still governed by the traditions of the War of Independence, and fancy that the drilled and well-armed Turks of to-day can be met in the same fashion as the Bashi-Bazuks and raw levies of Mahmoud II. If there was a fair chance of their getting the better of the Turks it is probably on Turkey that the pressure would be brought to bear, but as matters stand it is the Greeks who will be called on to give way a little.

The long and fierce conflict between Chili and Peru has ended in the capture of Lima on the 17th instant after a decisive engagement at Miraflores, in which both sides suffered heavily. General Pierola, the President of Peru, effected his escape from the battle-field. Few recent wars have so little enlisted the sympathies of mankind, and the most that can be said is that the beaten nation did not deserve a better fate. Some lessons have been learned in the science of naval warfare by the famous capture of the *Huascar* and by torpedo experiments, but the most striking revelation has been the moral and material inferiority of the Peruvians to the Chilians. This cannot be laid to difference of race or religion or (speaking broadly) form of government, and if frequency or disastrousness of earthquakes should impede the growth in civilization and prosperity, the odds would certainly be against Chili. Climatic influences may affect the problem, but the greater maritime advantages of the more southern republic are doubtless the prime cause of its progressiveness, while its peculiar topography is favorable to a strong and stable government.

HARMONY.

EVERY one who reads the newspaper speculations about the composition of General Garfield's Cabinet, whether they appear as "interviews" or correspondence or editorial articles, must be struck with the great importance which they all attach to "harmony." Such of them as emanate either from the friends of Mr. Conkling or Mr. Blaine are sure to dwell on the probability that Mr. Garfield is deeply impressed with the necessity of "harmony"; that he has himself witnessed the melancholy results of the absence of "harmony," and that he will leave nothing undone to restore "harmony." This is generally followed by some account of the results of "harmony," but this account is never very minute. The most one can make out of it is that when there is "harmony" Mr. Conkling will be pleased with the Administration and will "support" it, and so will Mr. Blaine and Mr. Cameron and Mr. Logan, and that then, in some unexplained manner, "the party" will have a period of great prosperity—will move on "to fresh triumphs," and will pass through experiences of an undescribed but very gratifying nature. In this way it is readily proved that General Garfield's first and greatest duty is to do something about "harmony." In fact, all the duty or obligation that exists towards "harmony" is made to devolve on him. He has to bear all the responsibility of it. Nobody else, as far as we can make out, need concern himself about it. Any one else who likes a little discord can have it, but the President must not treat himself to anything of the kind. He must work for "harmony," and live in, for, and by "harmony," and put the delights of discord far from him.

Now, the harmony which Mr. Garfield will owe to the party, he will owe solely for the purpose of making it more efficient in the performance of the two duties with which a party in possession of the Government is charged—legislation and administration. He is bound to do for the party whatever will keep it in power for these two purposes, and whatever will enable it when in power to attain those purposes most effectively. Any harmony which does not help to keep the party in power for legislation and administration, or which tends to deprive the party of the power of legislation and administration, he is not only not bound to cultivate or pursue, but he is very distinctly bound to avoid. In other words, where there is good ground for believing that harmony will do harm, it is his duty to cultivate or strive after discord. There is not in political harmony, as there is in musical harmony, any absolute or inherent virtue of its own. Its object is not pure pleasure, but utility. It is simply a means to an end. A statesman is bound to be "harmonious" if thereby he can make the country happier, safer, and more prosperous, but if he finds that he attains these objects more effectively by discord, then discord he should seek.

Although the writers and the interviewed who are now busy in promising or recommending harmony in his behalf avoid, as we have said, furnishing us with any definition of the harmony they have in mind, we are able to get at their meaning by recalling the events of a period which we believe they are agreed in considering the most harmonious period in the history of the Republican party, namely, the period between 1870 and 1876. Any one who wishes to study harmony as they understand it has to go back to the history of those years. There was, of course, more or less discord in the party. There was a large minority which disapproved of many things the majority were doing, but between the President and the majority, both in the Senate and House, there was the most perfect harmony. They all worked together beautifully. The majority considered the President an ideal President, and the President considered the majority an ideal majority. Every Republican Senator and Representative had his own way with regard to the distribution of the offices, or, in other words, had all those perquisites and privileges the denial of which by President Hayes is said to constitute President Hayes's "failure." All the Republican politicians who complain most bitterly of Mr. Hayes were happy and satisfied. Well, what happened? Did this harmony promote the efficiency of the party as a legislative and administrative agency? Nothing of the kind. On the contrary, General Grant had hardly succeeded in establishing harmony when the party began to lose its hold on power. The first palpable sign of harmony was the appointment of Mr. "Tom" Murphy as Collector of the Port of New York in 1873.

From that time the party fortunes apparently began to decline. Scandal after scandal showed itself in Washington, and at the election of 1874 the Northern States began to cast heavy majorities against the party, so that by the time President Hayes came into power it had actually lost control of the House and was certain to lose control of the Senate in the following year, and had lost fourteen Republican States. In other words, its control of the Government was gone, and the Democrats came in to make those attacks on the national supremacy and on the public credit of which there has during the last four years been such doleful complaint from the Republican press. This of itself furnished very strong proof that harmony was not good for the party, inasmuch as, by exasperating the voters, it had caused the loss by the party of the power of legislation, and, in part, of the power of administration.

This strong proof was brought up almost to the point of demonstration by the effect of discord during Mr. Hayes's term. Instead of maintaining harmony he deliberately tried discord, and forthwith the tide of opinion towards the party began to turn. The States it had lost began to come back to it, and it began to regain slowly its control of both Houses of Congress. During the whole of this recuperative process nearly all the leading men who maintained harmony under Grant—Conkling, Logan, Chandler, and the like—were living in a state of absolute discord. Mr. Conkling has not known a day's harmony for four years. Nevertheless the country continued to prosper steadily. The national debt was reduced, specie payments were resumed, the national credit continued to rise, the administrative service became purer and more efficient. In fact, all signs of good government multiplied, so that a good many simple-minded persons have begun to ask whether discord is not a better thing for a government than harmony, and whether it is not the duty of an American President to promote and cultivate discord in his own party and to resist all attempts to establish harmony.

These simple-minded persons will, however, by a little consideration of some of the above-mentioned facts of the history of the period between 1872 and 1880, reach without much difficulty a solution of what is puzzling in this contrast between the effects of discord and harmony on the Government. The explanation is this: The harmony for which Messrs. Conkling, Logan, Cameron, Carpenter, Blaine, and the like clamor is not the harmony which our simple-minded friends are thinking of. That is, it is not close union among the party leaders for the purpose of making the party a more efficient instrument for passing and carrying laws into execution; for harmony for this purpose, or harmony which would have no other result than this, they care nothing, or next to nothing. They do not habitually think at all of the majority in Congress as a body charged with the duty of national legislation, but as a body having a right to control the filling of a certain number of salaried offices. Nor do they habitually think at all of the President as a person charged with the efficient execution of the laws, but as the person charged with the duty of seeing that each Senator and Representative of the majority obtains the share of the patronage which party usage assigns to him. What they have in their minds, too, when they talk of harmony, is not that unison of opinion and feeling about public affairs, the *idem velle, idem sentire de Republica*, by which so many great minds have been bound together, by which so many great enterprises have been achieved, and by which great majorities are in free countries won at the polls. They do not mean, indeed, the agreement of the mass of the voters of the party with the leaders at all, or their approval of their doings. They mean simply the satisfaction of a small knot of Senators and Representatives with the places given to their dependants and nominees by the President. The harmony of which they sing the praises, therefore, is only harmony in a very small circle. It does not reach or concern the country at large. It need not affect legislation or the execution of the laws, and indeed, as may be seen from the illustration we have cited, may prove a fertile source of corruption and disorder. Nor is the party at large interested particularly in the existence of this harmony, because it may exist while the party is being gradually driven from power under the growing disgust of the voters.

The grave way, therefore, in which the public listens while the "politicians" discourse through the newspapers on its enormous importance, and on the means by which it can be secured under General

Garfield, is a striking example of the power of phrases over the popular mind. As a matter of fact there is nothing against which General Garfield will, in the present state of the political world, need to be more carefully on his guard, if he has any ambition for a second term, than too great devotion to this harmony of the politicians. That he would be wise in totally disregarding their wishes we do not say; but we do say that he will make a great mistake if he supposes that he is placed in circumstances like those with which Mr. Lincoln had to deal in making up his Cabinet. Mr. Lincoln's competitors, from whom he chose his advisers, were as a rule representative men—that is, they had been prominently identified in the public mind with a great cause, and had behind them masses of voters who had for long years been influenced by their opinions on great public questions. Many of the worthies whom it is sought to force on General Garfield under the Lincoln precedent occupy no such position, have no such following, and no such hold on public confidence. Neither General Garfield nor any one else can think or feel with them about the Republic, because nobody knows what they think or feel about the Republic or anything else. What they represent, and the only thing they represent, is the small force of intriguers and adventurers who in every State gamble in offices, or bet on the gambling of their leaders. General Garfield might, therefore, surround himself with them and act in thorough harmony with them without establishing any hold whatever on that portion of the Republican party on which he must rely for his majority in Congress during the last two years of his first term, and for his re-election should he be renominated; and under these circumstances he cannot afford to be too "harmonious."

THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE TELEGRAPH COMPANIES.

THE indignation excited by the consolidation of the three "trunk" telegraphic companies of the country among the business men in the great cities seems to be very great. Some of them go so far as to denounce it as a "swindle," and compare the promoters to petty thieves, engaged in picking the pockets of the poor. It is assumed in all the outbursts of wrath on the subject that the result of the consolidation will be that the public, which now pays enough for its messages to supply dividends on a capital of \$41,000,000, will have to pay enough to supply dividends on \$80,000,000. The Western Union in 1858 had a capital stock of \$385,700, and it has risen to its present amount mainly owing to the fresh issues of stock made in the absorption of competing lines. Accordingly a great many people seem to fancy there has been a rise in the cost of telegrams proportionate to the increase in the amount of stock. But if you ask them whether they really mean to say that a message which in 1858 cost only fifty cents now costs forty dollars, or even twenty or five dollars, they amend their charge and say that what they mean is that though the public now pays no more than, if even so much as, it paid twenty years ago for its messages, it has not received the benefit of the improvements in telegraphy and the decline in the percentage of operating expenses (due to increase of business) to which it is fully entitled. If you ask what reduction these improvements and this decline would entitle it to, and whether they are not in some degree, and if so how much, counterbalanced by the extension of telegraphic lines to places in which the business is not remunerative, you get no satisfactory answer. In fact, nothing is more striking in the discussions which the consolidation has called forth than the small amount of knowledge which outsiders seem to possess of the conditions under which the telegraphic business is carried on. There is more or less talk of starting a competing company which will deliver the merchants from their dependence on this new and monstrous monopoly, but naturally the enthusiasm for such a scheme is kept down considerably by the fact that of all those hitherto set on foot with a similar object not one has survived. As soon as any one of them got business enough to become a real competitor of the Western Union and promise the public any relief, the Western Union bought it up, and (which makes the present situation seem more hopeless) apparently never found the competitors unwilling to sell. Indeed, we believe the Western Union now looks on the appearance of a new telegraphic company as an indication of a desire on the part of a certain number of persons, not to cheapen telegraphic rates for

their fellow-citizens, but to get a share of the Western Union stock at a low rate for themselves. Most of those who are groaning over the latest consolidation recognize this when they talk of competition as a remedy for the present ills.

What makes the Western Union so formidable is that it cannot be competed with at all by a small concern; that is to say, competition with it cannot be built up readily by slow degrees, simply by doing a portion of the work it does, at lower rates. To compete with it successfully you have to do nearly *all* the work it does—that is, cover as wide an area promptly, at lower rates; and no new concern can do this, a fact which the promoters of new concerns are apt to recognize at a very early stage in their undertaking. The only competition with which the present company has to contend, and which does the public any good, is the competition of the letter post. In other words, what it has had to overcome in order to increase its business is the unwillingness of individuals to purchase rapidity of communication by condensing their letters and paying for ten words the cost of transmitting half a dozen tolerably long letters. A very large part of its business now might undoubtedly be done by letter through the mail. It gets it owing to the growth of a habit of impatience on the part of individuals, and this habit it has to cultivate by lowering its charges, or at least by not raising them. It has not raised them, and is not likely to do so under the new consolidation, because to raise them would kill or prevent the growth of business. Most, therefore, of the talk about rates being kept up to supply dividends on "watered stock" has as little foundation as it has in the case of railroads. The managers of telegraphic companies are naturally and inevitably guided in fixing their rates, not by the amount of their stock, but by their estimate of the amount the public will pay for telegraphing instead of writing letters. What they have constantly to seek after, and we presume do seek after, is the paying rate at which they can get most business, and it is their success in finding it, and the growth of the country, which furnish the dividends for the watered stock. Nor do we see any possibility of any change for the benefit of the public through corporate management as long as corporations are commercial enterprises animated by commercial motives. Much of the denunciation of the telegraphic monopolists one hears at the Cotton and Produce and Stock Exchanges, comes from men who would feel greatly amused if *they* were urged to carry on their business on philanthropic or any but commercial principles. Of course the telegraphic company is a monopoly, and monopolies are odious, but every concern which maintains its supremacy through the size of its capital and the length of its standing is also a monopoly in the same sense.

If we are ever to have really cheap telegraphy in this country we must not and cannot fairly ask it of commercial corporations. No such body can work successfully under the influence of two opposing motives, while allowing to each equal weight. We must look for it to companies chartered to do business under Government rules and regulations, and, therefore, semi-official, or to the Government itself. In the one case we should need a powerful and well-organized system of Government inspection, and in the other a vast extension and complication of the Post-office service. We think it not at all improbable that we shall have to come to one or other of these expedients some day, perhaps before long. In fact, the promoters of the consolidation between the Western Union and the American Union are freely accused of making the combination in order to sell \$100,000,000 of stock to the Government at par in three per cent. bonds, which, if true, would show that some men who study closely the relations between business and politics were of opinion that the time was near at hand. It is not too much to say that neither of these alternatives is possible until the fact that the Government service is an organization for business purposes has been frankly recognized by law. We cannot even provide inspecting machinery for great corporations as long as inspectors are considered and consider themselves the servants of a party. The career of Smyth, the late Superintendent of Insurance in this State, is full of instruction on this point. He was a State officer, whose duty was to see that the business of life insurance was conducted in such manner as to protect policy-holders against loss, or, in other words, to supervise in a general way the management of vast masses of capital. He got the place because he was an active and shrewd political

"worker." His supervision of the companies was a farce, and consisted largely in attempts to blackmail them in order to procure sums of money, which he doubtless intended to devote, and perhaps did devote in part, to replenishing the party treasury for campaign purposes; and so strongly entrenched in the place was he that, after these facts had become public, it was found impossible to remove him on impeachment, and not only this, but Governor Cornell felt compelled to renominate him when his term expired.

The transfer of the telegraph to the Post-office would, of course, involve the creation by law of a strict Government monopoly—that is to say, we should thereby cut ourselves off for ever from any relief from maladministration by means of private competition. We should deprive ourselves of that protection against the delays and shortcomings of the letter-post which we now derive from the working of the telegraph by a commercial corporation. We should lose, moreover, the right of claiming damages for such delays and shortcomings before the courts, which we now enjoy as against the Western Union or other telegraph companies. We should, in fact, place ourselves in complete dependence, as regards the most important part of the social machinery next to the administration of justice, on an official class for whose wrongdoings the public would be absolutely without remedy, if it continued to be filled as it is now filled. At present the United States Post-office is officered and worked as a political machine. The Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Tyner, was, we believe, appointed by General Grant to help the late Mr. Morton to "carry Indiana." He was retained in office by the present Administration in order to please the same gentleman. His most prominent supporter, Mr. Brady, the hero of the late Congressional exposés of the "Star-route contracts," is one of the most active "workers" in the Union. He was absent from his post for a whole month looking after a "fair count" down in Florida after the Presidential election in 1876, and his mind is certainly one-half, if not two-thirds, occupied with the electioneering business of the Republican party. It would never enter the head of the present managers of the Western Union or American Union to employ either of these gentlemen in important places in the conduct of the telegraph. They would not retain in their service anybody whose time and attention were as much taken up with matters not pertaining to the duties of their office as the time and attention of these gentlemen are. Moreover, they would not dare to fill their subordinate offices, with their present responsibility to their stockholders and liability in damages to their customers, with persons urged upon them by Congressmen. If it became known that they were selecting their subordinate officers in the way the Government selects its subordinate officers, and that the management was controlled by the same considerations, there would be a fall in the price of the stock which would speedily bring them to their senses. It is clear enough from all this that the assumption of the telegraph monopoly by the Government would make imperative a radical and final change in the mode of selecting officers to discharge Government business. The entire Post-office service would have to be assimilated by law to that of the New York post-office as now conducted by Mr. James. Postmasters would have to come out of "politics" definitively, and leave the salvation of the country at caucuses or conventions, as the officers of the Western Union leave it, to the hands of persons with fewer duties to the public. Moreover, the Government could not, any more than the Western Union can, carry on the telegraphing business under "rotation in office." It could not recognize the right of each "worker" to "take a hack," as he would say, at the working of the national telegraph whenever he was out of other employment and short of money. In short, it would be forced to reorganize the whole Post-office service on business principles and maintain it on business principles.

RECENT DISCOVERIES CONCERNING THACKERAY.

AN English provincial rector once wrote to the *Times* complaining of a lecture that had just been delivered in his town by, as he said, "an elderly, broken-nosed, scribbling impostor." The writer shared Mr. Anthony Trollope's opinion that in his 'Four Georges' Thackeray had overstepped the limits properly observed by the British sense of decorum; but, more successfully than Mr. Trollope or any one who has since endeavored to point out Thackeray's deficiencies, he seems to have summed them up with

concise comprehensiveness. There is no doubt of the justice of the general indictment, and, whatever one may think of the decorum of the lectures on the Georges, it is impossible for the most fanatical of Thackeray's admirers to deny that he was, when he delivered them, elderly, broken-nosed, a scribbler, and—since he so often publicly admitted the fact, it is idle to blink that either—an impostor. Nevertheless, he was so many things besides these, of so much more importance to the public, that not unlikely whatever particular discredit there was in them was in danger of being to all intents and purposes forgotten. He has been dead for seventeen years now, and there has existed, therefore, for this period, no reason why he should be called "elderly" or "broken-nosed," but there has been, on the other hand, no reason why any of the characteristics of so great a figure in English literature should be allowed to fall into oblivion. This explains, we suppose, the several recent attempts to prevent the possible misconception that Thackeray was not a snob who was ashamed of his scribbling. Lord Beaconsfield has endeavored to atone for Mr. Trollope's omission in the latter's biography by putting the matter in his foreground. And Mr. Edmund Yates took advantage of the appearance of 'Endymion' to recall his early personal attack upon Thackeray, and claim some credit for his perspicacity at a time when it required so much courage to make it that he was expelled from the Garrick Club in consequence, and found it proper to apologize for it long afterwards in public lectures, on the ground of his extreme youth.

We have, however, seen nothing so conscientiously elaborate as the article in the February *Scribner*, entitled "Thackeray's Relations to English Society," in which Mr. E. S. Nadal has the air of squaring his elbows to settle the matter definitively. It is interesting to follow his exposition. Thackeray's mind, it is easy to see, he says, was "in some respects a turbid and confused one," owing to the inconsistency between his worldliness and his poetic and philosophic character. What with this ceaseless conflict and "irresolution," and "the inability to decide what one wants," his mind was in a condition which his reviewer can only liken to "the combat of principles in the Manichean theology." He was born a poet and humorist, but unfortunately was born also with, or at any rate soon acquired, "a desire for social position which he was unable to put aside." It is not asserted that he made any efforts to put it aside, indeed, but it is intimated both that he was ashamed that he could not, and yet that nobody like him could have done so had he tried. However, "there was nothing for him . . . but to get on as best he could," and, considering the nature of British society, it is not implied that his failure was dismal. That society is described as "the most egotistical in the world," and exquisitely calculated "to excite to the highest degree his (Thackeray's) social pride." In America or France his works would have given him a high social position, but "such is not the case in England." Perhaps, also, in France or here his social pride would not have been so intensely excited. As it was, although he might have lived among "artists and other people of his own sort"—and indeed, as "he said, and no doubt truly," he preferred this kind of society—he would have had to publish himself "as one of the excluded, as one of a second lot, and this he would not have been able to do." What he did was to accept the inevitable; as Mr. Nadal says in a great sentence, "the only pursuit left to him was that career which consists in winning the respect of general society by obtaining the acquaintance of the leading people." It was because of this and the uphill task he thus undertook that he "thought so much about snobs and snobbishness," and that his "rather indolent mind" was awakened to "such energetic perception of the snobbish moods."

"During his fifty years of life"—stricter condensation begins to seem necessary as one gets on—"he had conned a vast number of snobbish thoughts, and must have accumulated a great quantity of snob-lore. No doubt he thought too much about snobs. . . . His doubting temper disposed him to disbelieve his own opinions, no matter with what pains and care he might have formed them. The opinion of another, on the contrary, was a fact. . . . The dandy is the true representative of that power which Thackeray worshipped more than any other thing in the world. Perhaps Thackeray never really knew what was the condition of his own feelings toward the world of British fashion. From long habit he had come to regard it as the most tremendous object existing. There is a worship which is Fear rather than Praise, and it was this which he bestowed upon it. He accused it, he perhaps even hated it, but he worshipped it."

Mr. Nadal's title for his article is, in some sense, a misnomer; his paper is rather a general fragment upon Thackeray, based apparently upon Mr. Trollope's recent biography, and making prominent such points as strike the writer most forcibly. It is to these last only that we have referred. But it is to be noticed that Mr. Trollope takes a very different view of them from Mr. Nadal, and that, although his book can hardly be called the offering of a hero-worshipper at the shrine of his saint, he feels free to ascribe Thackeray's skill in depicting snobs to his hatred of meanness instead of to his fellow-feeling for sycophancy, and, indeed, goes so far as to condemn his strictures in several instances as unjust. Why, he enquired, with a truly

British frankness, should any one be ashamed of being glad of having been publicly spoken to by a duke? The late Mr. Bagehot also thought Thackeray judged snobbishness too severely, as Mr. Nadal himself notes; but, as he goes on to show, Mr. Bagehot, and *à fortiori* Mr. Trollope we might add, beg the question. "It was Mr. Bagehot's mistake," he says, "to suppose the thoughts of one society to be those of the world—to take as universal a sentiment which, in the degree in which he knew it, was merely British." Probably Mr. Trollope and Mr. Bagehot, by mere force of logic, would themselves be set down by him as snobs. The infamy of snobbishness is, of course, the proper, as it was Thackeray's, starting-point, and the great question is, how Thackeray was enabled to handle it so well. Mr. Nadal is too astute not to see this, but no one who reads his article will be able to avoid the conclusion that he is generalizing too widely from conscious rectitude or from national prejudice in his notion that the snob or "dandy"—to which latter word he appears to give an esoteric sense—is a peculiarly British institution, although he "exists everywhere except, perhaps, in America." And, consequently, we cannot but feel it a hasty judgment to ascribe Thackeray's success in delineating snobs to the "pursuit" of the "leading" members of British society, which a "turbid and confused mind" had imposed upon him.

The truth is, and it is over-subtlety, or else something not subtle at all, in Mr. Nadal to run by it heedlessly, that Thackeray did so well by the snob because he was a general snob, so to speak, himself—a snob humanly considered, and by no means exclusively a British snob. Moreover (whether he was "rather a critic than an artist" or not, as Mr. Nadal observes further on), it is one of his chief titles to fame that he discovered snobbishness to be an integral element of human nature. Nowhere in literature has there been a greater anthropological achievement than this—namely, the discovery that every man is, in some degree of development, embryonic or efflorescent, a snob. It is as impossible to controvert the application of this truth to America as it would be thus to limit the operation of the laws discovered by Kepler or Newton; or, to confine illustration to literature, to maintain that the great truth discovered by Goethe, that every man is a possible Mephistopheles, has an application mainly Teutonic and wholly transatlantic. No doubt Thackeray was assisted in his discovery by observation and experience, and of the British snob especially; but if this alone were all that were required, the fact would not have escaped his predecessors, and it is also to be borne in mind that, unlike Mr. Nadal, he saw snobbishness beyond the confines of his field of closest observation. Like all discoveries and inventions, something more than a fortuitous congregation of circumstances was necessary to his; as Emerson says of Goethe's search for Mephistopheles, "instead of looking in books and pictures, [he] looked for him in his own mind." "I have never heard of any crime I might not have committed," Emerson quotes apropos of this, and Thackeray was as explicit in his humorous "You must not judge hastily or vulgarly of snobs; to do so shows that you are yourself a snob. I myself have been taken for one." All this, however, sounds like archæology, and what is remarkable in this recent Thackerayana is not only that the fact of Thackeray's snobbishness is exploited as a discovery, but as a discovery of great import—as if he were to an extraordinary degree a snob, the arch-snob, as it were, or, indeed, any more of a snob than any one else—any more of a snob than Goethe was of a Mephistopheles. Mr. Nadal, it should be observed, gives no reasons for his elaborate assertion of this; and as he quotes no newly-discovered documents or anecdotes in support of it he is open to the imputation of having "judged hastily of snobs"—Thackeray and the British dandy, namely. The latter is abundantly able to take care of himself, and doubtless Thackeray's personal reputation is security for his defence; but since he was weak enough to write essays "On Thunder and Small Beer," one feels sure he would, if he still survived, furnish his admirers with some particularly interesting discussion of these new discoveries. As Mr. Nadal touchingly observes, "He was a sensitive man."

THE MUNICIPAL PROBLEM IN PARIS.

PARIS, January 6, 1881.

THE government of large cities like Paris, London, or New York is a problem which has not yet received its definitive solution. It involves questions which are entirely new. The government of a country, great or small, is in itself more simple. There are constitutional rules which are now universally, or almost universally, adopted; the rules of parliamentary government are the same everywhere in their fundamental principles. I remember the discussions which took place in 1849 in the French Constituent Assembly. Some members were against the institution of the Presidency, and, strangely enough, it was M. Grévy, now President of the French Republic, who made the motion, which went by the name of the "proposition Grévy," in virtue of which there was to be no President, and only one Chamber, which should name an executive committee of ministers who could al-

ways be changed by a single vote. This proposition met with no success; various orators pointed to the American Senate in order to show the importance and necessity of a second Chamber. It has been said sometimes that the Senate was a necessity in America on account of the federative union of the States; the senators are considered the ambassadors of the States. But this argument does not apply to each individual State, and how is it that in every State constitution you find a Senate as well as a House of Representatives? It is because the second chamber has been felt, wherever the traditions of free government subsist, as a necessary organ of parliamentary government; the government of a single chamber is too unchecked and too tyrannical.

If we look, however, at Paris, which is as important as many small states of the world—more important if you consider not only the population but the interests which the capital of France represents—you will find this curious anomaly: there is but one chamber, called the Municipal Council, charged with the interests of this great city, and composed of representatives elected by universal suffrage. I will not criticise here universal suffrage, but surely it will be confessed that if it has any disadvantages, if it can be influenced by strong and dangerous passions, if it can become subversive of all rules and traditions, the danger is much greater in a huge focus, where all the corruption of civilization is constantly in fermentation, than on the broad surface of the land. The political demagogue, the sycophant, the tribune who makes a living by his eloquence, have a better chance in a capital where extreme misery is constantly in view of extreme wealth, where vice has its theatres, its heroes, its heroines, its organization, where the "auri sacra fames" animates and agitates everything.

Paris is at the present moment covered with placards of all colors, for our Municipal Council has ended its career, and new elections are to take place in a few days. If I told you the names of all the candidates you would not find one which has any reputation in science, in finance, in politics. As a rule, the more obscure candidate has the better chance; he is chosen by an irresponsible committee. He is a representative man; and what does he represent in Paris? He represents the spirit which has been at work in the great capital since the time of the first Revolution, and which might even be traced further back—the spirit which has so often made Paris the tyrant and arbiter of the country. The late Municipal Council, which has just terminated its session, has not done so much harm as it has shown evil intentions. The municipal law is such, at the present moment, that the privileges of the Municipal Council are perfectly well defined; it can only move within certain limits, and as soon as these limits are transgressed its action is null, its resolutions are immediately cancelled by the Prefect of the Seine, who is not the elect of the Council but the representative of the Home Minister. The Municipal Council could not, for instance, though it often tried, interfere with the police, as the police are still under the direction of the Home Office; it could not have public sittings, though it invited foreigners to come into the Hall of the Tuileries, where its deliberations take place, as the Convention used to invite men and women to what were called "les honneurs de la séance." It could not name the prefect, it could not do many other things which it aimed at doing; but it did "laïcize" the schools, to use the word of the day—it turned the clerical element, represented by Sisters and by Brothers, out of nearly every municipal school; it took away all the crucifixes from the schools, and would no longer tolerate any religious emblem in the municipal edifices; it changed the names of many streets, and gave to many the favorite names of the "Conventionnels" and the Jacobins—it showed its anti-clericalism in a thousand ways. It voted money for a number of monuments to be dedicated to revolutionary heroes. It did much for the education of the people, and augmented greatly the amount of the taxes for the schools, but it imposed on the municipal schools books inspired by the most intolerant spirit. The Council voted a large sum of money for its own expenses, though the municipal functions are gratuitous by law. It voted a large sum for buying the house of a municipal councillor, which was found afterwards to be uninhabitable, and the inhabitants of the quarter protested against the amount spent on it. A proposition made in view of erecting a monument to the Commune and the Communists was rejected by a small majority, but great presents in money were voted to the Communists who returned from Nouméa.

But the most remarkable feature of the late administration (and this is the point on which I most desire to dwell) was the spirit manifested by the Municipal Council with regard to the great water and gas companies. It seemed to consider them natural enemies. An agreement which had been prepared in order to diminish the price of gas, and on the other hand to prolong the concession of the gas company, was rejected on the last day of the session. The water company succeeded in making a new contract for ten years; but the words "privilege" and "monopoly" are constantly in the mouths of the Municipal Councillors whenever they mention these great companies. If the Municipal Council which will be soon elected exhibits the same spirit, it will be very difficult for the gas and water companies to live at peace with the city. They will be threatened in their rights and in their existence. This

jealous spirit of the city of Paris can only have had consequences. None of our great companies has a privilege for more than a very limited number of years. The principle of a perpetual privilege may have its inconveniences, but when the term of the concession is too short, the necessity of the sinking fund contributes to increase in too great a proportion the price of gas or of water. The Municipal Council also put its veto on an agreement between the omnibus company of Paris and the two companies of tramways which have been formed of late years on the north and south sides of the river. This agreement was made for the advantage of the public and in order to establish a regular connection between the lines of omnibuses and of tramways. Of course, the Municipal Councillors, in using their powers, have always pretended to act in the interest of the public; but so far their negative and obstructive policy with regard to all the great companies has had no good effects.

Most of the questions which come before a Municipal Council are technical and scientific questions; they concern the welfare and the comfort of the city. Such questions are better treated by scientific committees and boards than by little parliaments composed of politicians. It is the evident tendency in London, where the system of parishes has been adhered to, and where there is no great municipal council, to entrust the management of these important questions to separate boards; there is a Board of Works, a School Board, etc. I have been told by Americans with whom I have conversed lately, that it has been found convenient in New York and in many other cities to give great powers to such boards, which are elected in various ways, but which are not composed of the nominees of direct universal suffrage. The power of taxation must, of course, always belong in the end to the nominees of the people; but the power of the purse is not everything; when the taxes have been voted, the administrative details had much better be taken out of the hands of those who can give neither time nor knowledge to their study. In Paris we have a staff of men who are truly admirable for their honesty and for their science, who are engineers of the state, but who are allowed by the state to give to the city of Paris the benefit of their great knowledge. Such a man is M. Alphand, who has completely transformed all the promenades and plantations of Paris, who has made it the cleanest city in the world, and who has given to the population, even in the poorest quarters, small parks and squares. We had M. Belgrand, who instituted the great system of sewerage which will one day make Paris as healthy as possible; we have men who have undertaken to use the sewage of the city for agricultural purposes, and who have begun the most gigantic experiment of this kind which has ever been tried. It is the duty of these professional men to stand, as it were, between the Municipal Council and the great water, gas, and electric companies. They instruct the Council, they control the companies and see that the charters are well obeyed.

Though politics are constantly introduced in the deliberations of the Municipal Council, they have really no place there. The rights, the liberties of the citizen are defended before the courts and in the Chambers; the government of the city becomes more and more a merely scientific question, when there are great assemblies in which everything can be said and the smallest act of tyranny or corruption be denounced, when there are independent tribunals where the rights of the individual can find redress in all circumstances. If there must be in a capital a popular municipal council, elected by universal suffrage, it ought really to have no other function than voting the budget; and the place which the second chamber takes in every parliamentary government ought to be filled by scientific and technical boards, having distinct rights and a distinct mission. The question of the nomination of these boards cannot be treated *ex professo*; it cannot be solved everywhere in the same way. In London, in New York, in Paris the solution must be different. How far the power of the state ought to interfere with the municipal power is another and very difficult question, which cannot, I suppose, be treated everywhere in the same fashion. One thing only seems quite certain: it is the universal tendency to treat great municipal questions as scientific questions, not as party questions, and therefore to prepare a larger scope for science, for independent knowledge, in the interest of the whole community. It is said that the greater contains the less; it is curious, however, to find that the rules for the government of nations have been very well defined, and that the proper rules for the government of great cities are still very vague and uncertain.

Correspondence.

"WEST POINT ON TRIAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In connection with the Whittaker case, now on the point of trial before a court-martial in this city, it has been and is the habit of a certain philanthropical class of journalists to reiterate the declaration that "West

Point is on trial as well as Cadet Whittaker." In view of this proclivity it is a little singular that none of them bring forward data showing the relative moral standing in the Army of civil appointees and graduates of the Military Academy. Possibly they are deterred by the way in which the statistics turn out.

Last week (Friday, January 21) the *Herald* published a list of thirty-one (31) names of officers who within the past four years have been tried by court-martial and found guilty of drunkenness accompanied by other disgraceful conduct, the penalty for which is dismissal as prescribed by the Articles of War. The *Herald's* object was to show that the President's influence in commuting these sentences had been to the prejudice of discipline, and rather encouraging than otherwise to the vice of intemperance; but that is foreign to my present purpose. I have been at the pains to examine the Army Registers of the years in question, and find that the derelict officers were appointed as follows:

From civil life,	23
" the Military Academy,	5
" the Army,	2
Doubtful (not found),	1
Total,	31

This is certainly a tolerably fair showing for an institution which we are told is little better than a training-school for drunkards.

Respectfully yours,

C. L. N.

JANUARY 22, 1881.

THE NEW TREATY WITH CHINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As your correspondent "E. C." has remarked, the clauses in the proposed treaty with China bearing upon the opium trade are not likely to limit that trade to any appreciable extent. As a defender of the trade, it is not strange that he sees in them a thoroughly unwise as well as unjust discrimination against American trade in China, especially the carrying trade. The arguments, however, adduced by him to show that the Chinese authorities are not influenced by philanthropic motives and a real desire to limit that traffic, which, I think, the great weight of testimony goes to show is productive of unspeakable harm, do not seem to me conclusive. It is commonly understood that it is only because of foreign pressure that severely restrictive, if not prohibitive, laws are not put in operation, and that any such laws would be regarded by the foreign Powers as infringements of the existing treaties.

It is perhaps hardly worth while to attempt to prove the baneful character of the opium trade, yet to show that the opposition to it is not by any means confined to transient travellers or American sentimentalists, I would refer to the many articles bearing on that subject in the columns of the *Japan Weekly Mail*, between 1870 and 1874. The *Mail* was at that time under the editorial care of Mr. W. G. Howell, for many years a merchant in China, and an Englishman of a pronounced type. His condemnation of the trade was most severe. I would also like to refer to the very great impression made by it upon the Japanese Government, which led to the insertion of a clause in the existing treaties prohibiting the importation of opium, except in small quantities for medicinal purposes, and has since led to the placing of the trade in medicinal opium under the strictest official surveillance. The Chinese Government wishes to place itself with reference to this trade in the same position which the Japanese Government occupies, and the only way in which this can be done, in view of the ex-territorial rights asserted by foreigners, is by the negotiation of treaties similar to the one proposed. Whether it was wise or not to prohibit American vessels from carrying opium may be open to question, but the efforts of the Chinese Government to free itself from some of the oppressive restrictions with which the ex-territorial clauses of the present treaties hamper them, will, I think, meet with very general sympathy.

It has been asked why American citizens should be restricted to a few ports in China, while Chinese subjects are permitted to reside and trade in any part of the United States. Originally this was the result of an exclusive policy, but it may be doubted if this is the main reason now. It is largely owing to the fact that foreigners in China are not under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Government. The wisdom of asserting ex-territorial rights under existing circumstances may be freely admitted, but certainly no one can be surprised at the unwillingness of the Chinese Government to throw open the entire country to such a miscellaneous company of foreigners as are to be found upon its shores, and over whom they can exercise no control except through the intervention of a foreign officer, who in so large a country must often be hundreds of miles away.

This difficulty is by no means imaginary, as one or two incidents which occurred some years ago in Japan will show. On one occasion a British sub-

jeet, employed as a lighthouse-keeper in the interior, was brought before the consul in Yokohama on a charge of rape. From the nature of the case there could be only native witnesses, and the man was acquitted simply because the foreign jury was unwilling to convict a fellow-countryman of so serious an offence on purely native testimony. Another time a man was brought before the British consul in Tokio on a similar charge, and acquitted for the same reason in spite of the protestations of the consul. These juries may or may not have been wise, but it is easy to see the impression such cases must make upon the Japanese.

Under existing arrangements foreigners who can secure passports through their consuls or ministers are allowed to travel at will in China, and even reside for years together in the remotest provinces. Any respectable person can readily procure such passports, and a large number of foreigners are now residing in the interior of China under this arrangement. This privilege will doubtless be continued, but the idea that any general opening of either China or Japan to foreign residence and trade, without some radical modification of the ex-territorial clauses of the existing treaties, may be dismissed as hopeless.

D. C. G.

THE EGYPTIAN STONE AGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a note in the *Nation* of January 13 you remark that "the greatly disputed question as to the existence of a pre-Hamitic population in the valley of the Nile has been *finally set at rest* [the italics are my own] by the unequivocal evidence afforded by the recent archaeological and lithological researches of Dr. Mook." I think that the consideration of the facts and dates which I propose to lay before you will induce you to modify this statement.

I passed the winter of 1877-8 in Egypt, and being well aware of the disputed state of the pre-historic question so far as concerns that country, I determined to investigate thoroughly the alleged existence there of the "stone age." I was fortunate enough soon to find an undoubted *atelier* of flint implements in the desert a few miles east of Cairo, near the Red Mountain. I then went up the Nile, and remained more than six weeks at Luxor, making extended and thorough researches on both banks of the river. I find by reference to my journal that I discovered the first flint implement in this region on January 30, 1878. From this date on I kept up a constant search, and was rewarded by finding quite a number of specimens of palæolithic axes, of the true type of St. Acheul, together with a most extensive series of all the usual implements that are found in other countries in which the existence of the "stone age" is regarded as established. The palæolithic axes were mostly found in the bottom of the wadys which lead from the mountains enclosing the valley down to the banks of the river. It is only in such spots that we could expect to find now any remains of the earliest "stone age" belonging to the pleistocene period. On March 6 Dr. Mook came up the river as surgeon upon one of the Cook steamboats, and I guided him to that part of the desert where I had found palæolithic implements, and where he also was able to discover a very few similar ones.

The first public notice of my discovery was contained in a note to a communication to the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain, made by Dr. Jukes Brown, in May, 1878, based upon information received from a gentleman who had seen my collection at Luxor. The collection itself I brought to Paris, and at the request of M. de Mortillet I placed a selection of specimens from it on exhibition in the Anthropological Department of the great Exposition of that year, which are described in the catalogue of that department as "types franchement acheuléens." At a meeting of the Société d'Anthropologie de Paris, held on October 10 of the same year, I presented a number of examples, and gave an account of the circumstances of their discovery, which is printed in the *Bulletin of the Society* for January, 1879. M. de Mortillet has referred to my discovery as of very great importance, in an article in the *Revue d'Anthropologie* for Jan., 1879, which was copied into the *Matériaux pour l'histoire primitive de l'homme*, vol. xiv. p. 44, and which was translated for the *Popular Science Monthly* for April, 1879.

Such are the facts in the case, but all that Dr. Mook has to say about my discovery is this: "Prof. Haynes, at Boston, with whom, in the early part of 1878, I searched these localities, possesses no others"—i.e., than objects similar to those in his collection. He even gives the credit of the first discovery of stone implements in the desert, on the right bank of the river at Luxor, to Mr. Hertwig, an invalid, who was staying there at the same time with myself, and who had no other knowledge of the pre-historic question than what he had acquired by accompanying me on some of my expeditions. M. de Mortillet, in a private letter of November 19, 1880, writes: "Toutes les prétensions de tous les Allemands d'au delà du Rhin n'empêcheront pas la reconnaissance des faits. Vos silex si intéressants et si importants d'Égypte ont été exposés au vu et au su de tout le monde. Ils ont été mentionnés dans plusieurs publications."

As to the correctness of Dr. Mook's statement, I can only refer any one who is interested in the subject to my collection itself, or to the plates that will accompany an article in the forthcoming volume of the *Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*.

Trusting I have not trespassed too much upon your space, I remain, yours with much respect,

HENRY W. HAYNES.

239 BEACON STREET, BOSTON, JAN. 17, 1881.

[The question of priority is of secondary importance to that of the genuineness of the finds, which we do not doubt, but which the laboratory tests of the late Dr. Mook (his death is just announced) were perhaps necessary to establish beyond question. Dr. Mook, a pupil of Heinrich Fischer, of Freiburg, was a mineralogical specialist for siliceous rocks, and author of a physico-ethnographical treatise on nephrite and jade published in 1875. We may remark, finally, that on p. 136, vol. v. of Mortillet's *Matériaux* cited by Prof. Haynes, a letter dated Cairo, Feb. 17, 1867, announces the discovery by the writer, Arcelin, and De Murard, of the Stone Age along the valley of the Nile from Cairo to Assouan, in the form of "toute une série d'objets en silex ou en pierre dure (porphyres, roches amphiboliques, etc.), évidemment travaillé de main d'homme. . . . Les gisements que nous avons observés se trouvent soit à la base des dépôts modernes, etc."—ED. NATION.]

CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your last number (*Nation* for January 13) you say: "The Congressional district as now constituted we believe to be intimately associated with the abuse of the civil service, the rule of the Boss, and corrupt legislation." You have touched here upon one of the worst defects in our political system. I have long been of the opinion that the district system is one of its most mischievous features. When a person must either vote for one of two candidates or throw away his vote, he is wholly at the mercy of the caucus. When a legislator must gain the favor of the caucus or lose all chance of reelection, there is an end of his independence; he too is at the mercy of the caucus. The requirement of residence within the bounds of the district completes his subjection. It has been proposed to do away with this requirement, and this would undoubtedly lessen the evil, but it would not do away with it wholly. The requirement would continue by custom, if not by law. Men vote for their neighbors in preference to a stranger. It is so natural to have a district represented by one of its own citizens, it is so desirable that we should know personally the man for whom we are to vote, and the habit of so doing is so strongly ingrained in the American people, that even if they could be brought to abolish the requirement—which is very unlikely—things would go on very much as before.

It is only the abolition of the district system itself that can work any real reform, and this is a matter not by any means so hard as it seems. Whom does a member of Congress represent? Nominally, of course, the citizens of his district: really, the members of his own party in that district; but in either case *men*, not *territory*. The notion that it must be the men residing within a particular geographical circumscription is not a part of the theory of representation. Districts are merely an accidental feature in it. They were devised in order to ensure an equitable representation; now that they appear to result in mischief, the question arises whether there is no other method of obtaining the desired equality. We can have no attachment to the district system as such. The district is not an institution that calls out a man's affections and fastens ties of association upon him, like the State, county, and town. It is a purely artificial, uncertain, and shifting thing. The map does not give it; it is changed once in ten years; it has no name, only a number, and therefore no permanent individuality or identity. I used to pride myself upon residing in John Quincy Adams's old district, and upon having helped to elect his son to his father's seat; but who knows now what was John Quincy Adams's district? Quincy we know, and Norfolk County we know; but who remembers the number of that district? And if we knew it it would not help us, for the numbering is begun now at a different end of the State, and we have not even a meaningless numeral to help us.

In seeking a substitute for the district we should start from the principle, to which all will agree, that the member of a legislature represents not his district but the people of his district—that is, that the representation is of persons, not of places. The constituency, then, should be personal, not territorial. What we need is, a system which shall realize this idea; shall give every member a constituency of definite persons, with no limitations as to residence, except the constitutional one, that it shall be within the State—in other words, a system of personal representation. Many schemes of personal representation have been proposed, but none has been found wholly satisfac-

tory. Mr. Hare's admirably elaborated plan is regarded as too complicated; the method of three-cornered constituencies is good, so far as it goes, but very inadequate; the free list ensures minority representation, but is not easy to free from the dictation of the caucuses. Any plan to be acceptable and satisfactory must be engrafted upon the already existing traditions and political usages of the American people. One of these is residence within the district; from this it follows that any *reform* of the district system is impracticable. Another is election by pluralities. It is upon this now almost universal practice that I would build my plan, which is a logical application of the principle of election by pluralities. Let every person, as now, vote for one candidate, who may be a resident of any part of the State. Then let the votes of the whole State be canvassed and the names arranged in the order of the number of votes received; then let the requisite number at the head of the list be declared elected.

The objection will, of course, be made that in this way the names at the head of the list may receive a disproportionately large number of votes, and the last ones elected a very small number. On consideration, however, it will appear that the plan proposed will be likely to result in greater equality than at present rather than less. It is not generally known how great a discrepancy there is between the number of votes received by different candidates who are elected. For example, I find that members of the Forty-sixth Congress were elected by votes ranging from 22,114 (Mr. Davis, of California) to 2,653 (Mr. Forney, of Alabama). The representatives of New York ranged from 18,998 (Mr. Pierce) to 7,277 (Mr. Wood); while Mr. Washburn, of Minnesota, had 21,036, and Mr. Ballou, of Rhode Island, had 5,569. Certainly the plan proposed could not result in greater discrepancies than these. It would, at any rate, be the easiest thing in the world to prevent any great wasting of votes, and that by using machinery already in existence. When it is said that great numbers of votes would be thrown away upon the most popular candidates, it is forgotten that no man writes his own vote. He takes the printed ballot handed to him, scratches or adds names, as he sees fit, and puts it in the box. These ballots come from the Central Committee, who distribute them to the several localities. Now, it would be the business of the Central Committee to divide the State into as many districts as their party hopes to carry, and to see that the ballots sent to each of these districts have upon them the name of the local candidate. The Democrats would divide the State into so many districts, and the Republicans into so many, and all of them would elect their candidates. Voters would, as now, vote, as a rule, for a resident of their own district; but the fact that they could vote for a different one if they pleased would be a healthy and effective check upon bad nominations. For those dissatisfied with the nomination could unite with independent voters in other parts of the State; or third parties, too weak to carry any entire district, could, by judicious management, elect one member in the State. Of course, there would be mistakes made; a party would sometimes, by presenting too few or too many candidates, give them either an excessive vote or too few to secure their election. But are no such mistakes made now? Are not reasonable expectations often disappointed under the present method? And is it not a fact at present that in many States the minority party is left absolutely without representation?

Points of detail could be easily determined. Nominations, for example, could be made either by the State convention or by conventions in the several party districts—which districts would have as real an existence as the present ones. The question of vacancies is harder. The obvious method of giving the seat to the highest candidate still remaining upon the list might result in a change of party, and would open the door to corrupt bargains. A new election might be ordered or a choice be made by the Legislature between the three highest names.

The method here proposed would apply to the election of all bodies of men which have real and substantial powers. It would not be adapted to the presidential electors, because with these there is no preference on the part of the voters, their functions being purely formal. For them the best method would be that of the "free list." Each party nominating its list of candidates, voters would vote the entire list; and in the canvass as many would be declared elected at the head of each list as its proportion of the whole number of votes cast. This would be a perfect method of choosing presidential electors. Each party would exert its exact relative strength, and the present disproportionate power of the great States in the election of presidents—one of the most fruitful sources of corruption—would be done away.

MARCEL.

Notes.

THE publication last year by Macmillan & Co. of 'The Year's Art,' a manual compiled by Marcus B. Huish, epitomizing British art events, and giving a list of British artists, was successful enough to ensure the continuation of the work. The number for this year, with various additions,

such as an Almanac for artists, a list of architectural associations, and so on, has just been issued. We said, in noticing the first numbers of *Science*, edited in this city by Mr. John Michels, that its appearance was presumptive of a want of a weekly scientific journal in this country. We have been glad to observe that it has maintained and bettered its quality, and now that it has completed its first volume we can congratulate it on having, according to its own statement, achieved success. The first number of the *Rugbeian* is a creditable sheet of eight pages, well printed, and evidently in good hands. The new colony was hardly prepared for the severe cold at the close of the year. Those who desire to mix religion with their study of the French language may find something to their taste in *L'Avenir*, a monthly periodical of eight pages, edited by the Rev. C. Miel, rector of the French Episcopal Church of St. Sauveur, in Philadelphia (at 250 South 21st Street). The same end can be attained in a different way by procuring Dr. Louis Segond's translation of the Old and New Testament ('La Sainte Bible,' etc.), which bears the imprint of Oxford University (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons). This edition of the Scriptures possesses two great merits: it is rationally paraphrased, and the poetical portions are printed as such. In like manner, the text of missives is typographically distinguished by being printed in italics. At the end of the volume are placed a number of historical maps. The Boston Society of Natural History reprints from its Anniversary Memoirs Prof. Packard's monograph on "The Anatomy, Histology, and Embryology of *Limulus Polyphemus*," *alias* the Horse-Shoe Crab. The author reconciles the conflicting views of naturalists as to the place of this creature by bringing the Merostomata under Crustacea as a sub-class beside Trilobites. Beautiful plates accompany the text. Bulletin No. 3 of the Illinois State Laboratory of Natural History contains, among other valuable articles, elaborate notes on the food of birds—viz., the thrushes and bluebird. A balance is struck between their utility and harmfulness to the crops. The English sparrow deserves to be the next subject of investigation. From the annual report of the President of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences we learn that the museum contains the finest and most extensive collection of mound relics in the country, embracing upwards of three hundred copper beads and implements. The printing of Vol. III. of the Proceedings will be resumed at once. Cassell, Petter & Galpin have begun publication of a work on 'Old and New Edinburgh,' by James Grant, uniform with Thornbury and Walford's 'Old and New London.' L. W. Schmidt sends us Frederick Müller's (Amsterdam) "Catalogue of American Portraits (especially of Franklin and Washington)," in which are also to be found numerous historical and topographical plates of great value and rarity. A drawing of Novum Amsterodamum, executed with pen and water-colors, is pronounced the oldest view of this city known to exist. It bears date of 1650. During the week Secretary Evarts has laid before Congress an offer from Mr. B. F. Stevens, London, to sell to the State Department the "Henry Stevens Franklin collection of manuscripts and books." The MSS. are papers on public affairs chiefly, and were bequeathed to William Temple Franklin. Some of them record the negotiations in France during Franklin's mission on behalf of independence, and would properly find a place in the archives of the State Department. The sum of \$25,000 is asked for the collection. A work of extreme merit and authority, and of peculiar interest to collectors, is Alphonse Willems's 'Les Elzevier: Histoire et annales typographiques' (Brussels, 1880. 1 vol. 8vo). No less than 1,608 Elzevirs are recorded, not to speak of the 577 imitations enumerated in the "annexes." That able bi-monthly, the *Revue Historique*, will furnish its subscribers during the present year with an index to the five preceding years; and five years hence an index for the decade. Favorable notice is made in the last number (January-February) of a book for the young, Egger's 'Histoire du Livre' (Paris: Hetzel). A Strassburg bibliographer, Louis Mohr, has made a curious study of the translations of Schiller's 'Song of the Bell.' These are to be found in twenty-one languages of Europe, the Portuguese and Greek excepted. The French reckon 18, Latin 17, English 15, Italian, Polish, and Bohemian 4 each, Hungarian 3, Russian 2, etc. Besides comments, pictorial designs, etc., no fewer than 17 musical compositions have been inspired by the Song. The form which *tramway* shall take in Italian seems to be undecided in usage. A writer in the Florence *Rassegna* prefers *tramvai* to *tramvia* (also the Spanish form). In Tuscany he says the first form is already adopted in the popular ballads of the day. One of the oddest impositions of our time is certainly that by which the Chinamen at Port Darwin, Australia, have been made to contribute in aid of the Wesleyan Church, under the impression that they were "paying their miners' rights to the new Warden."

—Mr. John Fiske sums up what is known as to "Who are the Aryans?" in the February *Atlantic* after the manner of a writer who has the gift of popular exposition. The general subject is one upon which there is a good deal of guesswork current, and Mr. Fiske points out one very common error that is made in connection with it, of using the epithet Aryan, namely, in an ethnological instead of in an exclusively linguistic sense. It is a mark of

confused thinking, he assumes, to use language as a direct criterion of race, since speech and blood depend on different circumstances. Indeed, he goes so far as to assert that "all races which have long wandered and fought have become composite to a degree past deciphering"; so that comparative philology has accomplished less than is often supposed, although no one could value its results more highly than Mr. Fiske. They move him to what almost sounds like the eloquence of an advocate when he says of the British conquest of India: "The enlargement of our mental horizon which has resulted therefrom is not less remarkable than that which attended the revival of Greek studies in the fifteenth century." Still, we imagine people will go on in the old way, even after they know their terms are only arbitrarily descriptive. Further on in this number, for example, we have Mr. Richard Grant White, "In London Again," gazing at the statue of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy and testifying to an "intuitive recognition in its lineaments, before I knew whose they were, of an inexpressible something that told of his Aryan origin." "And yet," Mr. White adds, "this may possibly have been given to him by the English sculptor." It is obvious that here we are in the region of speculation, and one of the services that such articles as Mr. Fiske's perform is to enable us to distinguish between "daring" and "legitimate" speculation by defining with exactness the limits of what is verifiable in a given matter. Mr. White's paper, for the rest, is agreeable gossip, and, like its various predecessors, bears indisputable witness to the copiousness of the fund of observation and reflection which the author stored up during his recent English visit. It is becoming an interesting problem, indeed, precisely how long it will last. Mr. James furnishes thirty more pages of "The Portrait of a Lady," and though they average better than the January instalment and contain some very refined pathetic dialogue between the two main male characters, they have a slightly lumbering movement; in reading them one has a sense that the writer is rather prodigal of elaborateness. Mr. Richard T. Ely gives an account of "German Co-operative Credit-Unions"; Mr. Henry Hall writes of "The Future of American Shipping"; Miss Phelps's story, "Friends: a Duet," is continued, and suggests T. S. Arthur admixed with the new intensity; Mr. Wm. M. Rossetti in his "Wives of the Poets" clears away all foreign rubbish, and announces that next month he will take up the English interiors, when it is possible his series of papers may acquire an interest which we confess it has hitherto lacked to a notable extent, in our view.

—The stock illustrated articles in the February *Lippincott's* are "Down the Red River of the North," by Alice Ilgenfritz, and "A Celestial Colony," by C. Baldwin, to the quality of both of which their familiar titles give a correct enough clue. Wirt Sikes discourses of "Welshwomen" with a certain interest and apparently adequate experience. A better sketch of a somewhat similar order is "A Country Tavern in Winter," by Mary Dean. "Power-Centres" is the euphemistic title of an article on newspapers by "An Old Journalist," which will be the best read paper of the number, as it is, perhaps, the best reading. M. G. Van Rensselaer contributes an excellent review of Sarah Bernhardt's acting, and "Our Monthly Gossip" has a rhapsodical paragraph on George Eliot that is sufficiently amusing. Of the fiction, the serial "Lilith" maintains the melodramatic white heat with which it began, and "Monsieur Paul's Heroism" is an amiable little story, by Louise Seymour Houghton, that is worth singling out for special mention. This is not fulsome praise, however, as the story's surroundings are not specially inspiring this month. The "Literature of the Day," as usual, comprises some of the best critical writing of the month.

—Mr. Björnson's account in the February *Scribner* of "Norway's Constitutional Struggle" possesses the double merit of undoubted interest for American readers and great clearness of exposition. He fails, however, in his historical survey of the causes leading to the present state of tension between the Scandinavian King and the people of Norway, to intimate that both parties to the quarrel over the admission of the ministry to the Storting have changed sides in the course of it, so that a superficial observer might see nothing in it but opposition *à tout prix*. He implies, too, that the American Constitution provides that the Cabinet shall not be admitted to Congress; but desirable as it may be for this privilege to be expressly sanctioned by the Constitution, there can be no doubt that either House could extend the courtesy of debate to any or all members of the Cabinet at pleasure. In illustrating the relations of Norway and Sweden under the monarchy, Björnson's supposed analogy of a United States "divided into two governments, North and South, under one king, the royal residence being in the South," is curiously true even in its details to "the Union as it was." Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's "How the New Testament Came down to Us" is something more than an attempt to reconcile the public to the changes of the new revision. It does that, while seeking to allay alarm, but it also displays in a very lucid manner, with the aid of a few fac-similes from the oldest codices, the conditions of determining the original text in its purity. Slender materials furnish an excuse for two well-illustrated articles, "An Old Virginia Town" (Alexandria) and "Garrison Life at Governor's Island, New York Harbor." Mr. Brander Matthews's "Foreign Actors on the American Stage" is a useful

chronicle, fully equipped with dates and circumstances. Mr. John Burroughs's fresh "Notes of a Walker" tell of an English sky-lark heard by him last season "in full song above the Esopus meadows," an incident certainly worth recording. In spite of its technicality, Mr. Eugene Thayer's "Music of Niagara" fixes the attention, but it is like stumbling upon Prof. Fiazzi Smith and his sacred pyramid to encounter a sentence like this: "So much for the tone of Niagara [the dominant chord of our natural scale in music]. What is its rhythm? . . . Its chief accent or beat is just once per second! Here is our unit of time—here has the Creator given us a chronometer which should last as long as man shall walk the earth. It is the clock of God!" Mr. Lathrop's article on "John La Farge" is more successful than might have been expected, and fairly presents this admirable painter's merits and limitations. It is also the cause of making public for the first time some of Mr. La Farge's most charming designs.

—By the death of Isaac Sherman New York loses one of her most useful, and decidedly one of her strongest, citizens. Mr. Sherman possessed elements of greatness, and might have achieved eminence in the politics of the country if he had desired to do so. He was one of the efficient actors in the movement which divided the Democratic party of New York on the slavery question, and built up the Republican party on its ruins. He was a trusted counsellor of President Lincoln on many trying occasions, and might have had a place in his Cabinet if he had been willing to accept it. He occupied the rare position of a leader in spite of himself, for, although strenuously resisting notoriety and public office, he had established a reputation which caused his advice to be sought by the leaders of opinion on many of the questions which puzzle lawyers and legislators. His acquirements in political economy, finance, constitutional law, and the law of railways were extensive and profound, and his power of expression when dealing with these subjects terse and admirable. His moral standards were as high as his intellectual. In the list of "self-made men" he had hardly a superior among his contemporaries.

—A fac-simile republication of the 'Aztec Dictionary' of the friar Alonso de Molina (second edition of 1571) has just made its appearance in Leipzig, and must be considered one of the most useful additions to American aboriginal literature. This *vocabulario*, as it terms itself, has been the principal help in the study of the Aztec language in its most highly polished dialect, that of Anahuac, and of its central point, the ancient Tenochtitlan. But the quarto long ago became scarce and high-priced; much rarer still, and almost unattainable even to the richer class of students, is the first edition of 1505, which is in the shape of a moderate octavo volume. Bernardino de Sahagun, a Franciscan monk, translated portions of the Bible into Aztec in the middle of the sixteenth century, at a time when this language had undergone but few of the foreign influences which it experienced after the conquest, and Bern. Biondelli published this version together with Sahagun's Latin translation and his own Aztec-Latin glossary to it in Milan (1858, 4to). The list of words is considerable; but as it gives only Biblical words, it does not comprehend, like Molina, the bulk of the national, enchoric terms typical of the race and absolutely necessary for the study of Aztec ethnography and linguistics. None of the American languages is so richly represented by printed books as Aztec, and hence the new Molina in its two parts, Spanish-Aztec and Aztec-Spanish, together with its title-vignettes, prefaces, and grammatical additions, will be welcomed by all Americanists. Should Mr. Julius Platzmann, of Leipzig, to whom we owe this new edition, produce in the same manner some of the more notable Aztec texts, as well as the catechism composed in the western dialect of Jalisco, he would fill a gap still existing in the material accessible for the study of Aztec; for Aztec texts are just as valuable as they are scarce, and the study of a language without the help of any well-worded, extensive, and connected text is, to say the least, a most unsatisfactory, if not an altogether hopeless, undertaking. We acknowledge with pleasure that Mr. Platzmann has, by his republications of numerous ancient South-American grammars and dictionaries, fully contributed his share towards the present revival of the study of aboriginal languages. From an average calculation we infer that the vocables in Molina's Aztec-Spanish portion exceed by far the number of 50,000.

—The historian Mommsen is very often censured for presenting new and startling views to his readers, without letting them know the grounds upon which these views rest. The censure is not well founded. Mommsen distinguishes between the functions of the historian and those of the antiquarian; in his 'History' he gives for the most part only results, but in most cases he will be found to have argued the points elaborately and exhaustively in some other work. His 'Römische Forschungen,' published in 1864, consists of long and valuable papers, containing the arguments for most of the changes which were so conspicuous in the fourth edition of this history. A second volume of the 'Forschungen,' published in 1879, is, of course, noteworthy, as anything from his pen must be, but it is far from possessing the importance of the first volume. The papers it contains are generally short and treat of questions of secondary importance. Perhaps the most interesting one is that

upon "The three Demagogues of the early time of the Republic," Spurius Cassius, Marcus Manlius, and Spurius Maelius. In all these cases he considers the tradition to be not genuine: the political controversies of the last century of the Republic were carried back into the first, and the three great demagogical measures, the grants of land, the distribution of corn, and the abolition of debts (*novæ tabulæ*), associated falsely with these early names. Next follows a paper upon "Fabius and Diodorus," in which Mommsen shows that Diodorus contains a not inconsiderable element of valuable tradition, derived directly from Fabius Pictor, the earliest Roman historian. This paper is illustrated by a long discussion of "The Gallic Catastrophe."

—Two new volumes have been added to Müller's well-known series of religious text-books, containing a fresh version of the Koran, by Professor Palmer, of Oxford: 'The Qur'ân, translated by E. H. Palmer; vols. vii. and ix. of F. M. Müller's Sacred Books of the East' (London: Trübner & Co. 1880). It was perhaps desirable, for the sake of the completeness of the series, that the Bible of Mohammedanism should not be omitted; but besides this there hardly seems to be any sufficient reason for increasing the number of good translations of it, English and other, which were already accessible. And the more, because Professor Palmer's predilections and special studies do not appear to lie in the direction of this department of Arabic literature. The life of Mohammed, with an account of his work, prefixed to the first volume is compact, interesting, and sensible, and to general readers will be the most valuable part of the publication; but it is founded on the researches of others, and contains little or nothing that is original. Its presentation of the previously-existing faiths of Arabia is not on the level of the present study of religions; and expressions like "a relic of antediluvian times," occurring here and there, do not give a favorable impression of the author's scientific point of view. One matter—of minor importance, it is true—affecting the whole series calls for notice: its mode of transliterating Eastern names and terms is detestable. The system used is the so-called "missionary alphabet" of Müller himself, by which lower-case letters, italics, and small capitals are jumbled together in the same word. This has, to be sure, its place and use, but only as a makeshift, where diacritically-marked types and the means for providing them are alike wanting; its introduction here is a decided error of judgment on the part of the editor, since the Clarendon Press may be presumed to lack neither the ability nor the willingness to furnish something better.

FAGAN'S PANIZZI.*

SIR HANS SLOANE, an eminent physician, who died in 1753, caused a codicil to be inserted in his will, offering to His Majesty and to Parliament the entire collection of books, drawings, prints, medals, and coins, which he had himself collected at an outlay of £50,000, for the sum of £20,000, being half the amount of the valuation set upon his numerous treasures. This offer was accepted, and thus was formed the nucleus of the British Museum. The volumes bequeathed by Sir Hans Sloane are said to have amounted to 50,000. In 1757 George II., "fully impressed with a conviction of the utility of this institution," by instrument under the great seal added the library of printed books and manuscripts which had been gradually collected by the sovereigns of Great Britain from Henry VII. down to William III. Among the most valuable acquisitions thus handed over to the library the Alexandrian Codex of the Bible deserves a special mention. George III., in 1762, presented a collection of pamphlets, bound in 2,000 volumes, relating to the civil war of 1640-60. The progressive collection of newspapers from 1588 forms an unrivalled feature of the Museum; indeed, the thousands of closely-packed volumes constitute a library of no mean magnitude. In 1823 the library of George III. was presented by his successor to the nation, and ordered by Parliament to be added to the library of the British Museum. This collection is exceedingly valuable in possessing works of the Caxton press, as well as early editions of the classics, and was formed at an expenditure of little less than £200,000. The plan of the catalogue of this special donation was drawn up by Dr. Samuel Johnson. After this donation had been received, the present east wing of the Museum was built, at a cost of £140,000, and the volumes were ordered to be placed therein. The room, known as the King's Library, is, for its size, as handsome a room as any in the British Museum; the presses are glazed to preserve the books from dust, and the entire collection, which has never been incorporated with the earlier, presents in itself a unique appearance. We must, however, add that George IV. did not in reality present this collection to the nation, but rather sold it, as the value was paid from the surplus of certain funds granted by France as compensation for losses by the Revolution. Other donors also rendered great services by bequeathing small but valuable gifts. Garrick, the

actor, presented 900 volumes of old English plays; Sir Joseph Banks, 16,000 volumes, rich in works on natural history; Mr. S. da Costa, 180 Hebrew volumes, which had been gathered and bound for Charles II. Messrs. Cracherode, Payne-Knight, Hamilton, and others, not only left handsome legacies of bound volumes, but presented their entire collections of valuable antiques—a fact which Mr. Fagan has omitted to notice. The names of donors, and the lists of sums expended, do not require any further special mention, more especially as we desire to lay before our readers some account of the man who, next to the originator, Sir Hans Sloane, did more than any one else to raise the British Museum to its present high standard of efficiency.

Antonio Panizzi was born at Brescello, in the Duchy of Modena, in the year 1797, and having attached himself at an early age to the revolutionary party, was compelled to flee from his native land and hasten to England before he could feel secure from the pursuit of his relentless enemies. He was, however, found guilty of treasonable practices and condemned to death, being duly executed *in contumaciam*. One of the earliest acquaintances, on his arrival in England, made by Panizzi, an acquaintance which ripened into the warmest of friendships, was that of William Roscoe, well known for his works on Italian literature. Roscoe, then residing in Liverpool, did everything in his power to help the young exile, procuring pupils and furnishing him with introductions to those who, like himself, felt a warm sympathy for the oppressed Italian fugitives. Liverpool was the home first chosen by Panizzi, where his lectures were well attended, and he himself was soon recognized as an authority on all matters relating to Italian literature, more especially to that most difficult of poets, Dante, an edition of whose 'Divine Comedy' prepared by him appeared later under the patronage of Lord Vernon. This edition is considered to be one of the most important expositions of the poem, and ranks side by side with that made by the late King John of Saxony. In 1828 came the turning-point in Panizzi's career; he left Liverpool and obtained, through the influence of Henry, afterwards Lord Brougham, the chair of Italian literature at the then new University of London, now known as University College. In 1830 Prof. Panizzi was presented with the post of extra-Assistant Librarian to the British Museum, a presentation likewise due to the good-will of Lord Brougham; and from this appointment dates the increased welfare both of Panizzi and of the British Museum.

But before continuing further the history of this institution we may here note, for the amusement as well as instruction of all bibliographers and librarians, an account of a dispute which arose between Panizzi and the Royal Society of England, a society which measurably corresponds to the Académie de France, none but men known for their scientific acquirements being elected to a membership. In 1832-33 the Royal Society found it advisable to engage the services of some known cataloguer to revise the catalogue prepared for them by one of their own members. Dr. Roget requested Panizzi to look over a proof of a sheet which had been set up in type as a specimen. To this proposition Panizzi acceded, and brought the proof back to his home. On looking through it the numerous errors convinced him that the catalogue, to be of any use, should be begun *de novo*. We quote here an extract from a letter written by him to the Duke of Sussex (then President of the Royal Society), which shows that the compiler of the catalogue could not have been a man of even ordinary education:

"Authors' names were not better treated than the subjects. Bonaventura, the Christian name of Cavalieri, was taken for a family name, and a cross-reference put from it to Cavalieri; of the three mathematical *decades* of Giovan Camillo Gloriosi, one was put under Camillo, his second Christian name, and the remainder under his family name, Gloriosi. On entering a collection, the word *Collezione* was taken for a surname and *Nuova* for a *christian* name, and thus the entry is to be found, 'Collezione (N.)' I will not notice mere errors of the press, of which the number is prodigious; but there are entries which prove abundantly that the printer was not to be accused of them. Cossali's History of Algebra in Italy was printed *Nella Real Tipografia Parmense*, and *Parmense* was gravely inserted as the name of the place where the book was printed.

"Da Cunha's mathematical principles were translated into French by D'Abreu after the author's death, and have this title: 'Principes Mathématiques de feu J. A. Da Cunha.' Any one who has even merely heard of the 'feu Lord Maire de Londres' may easily guess, without much knowledge of French, that *feu* here means *late*, i. e., *deceased*. The compiler of this Catalogue, however, did not attach such a gloomy meaning to this word, but philosophically conceived it to signify *fire*, as is evident by his precaution in writing it with a capital F, *Feu*; and by substituting the word *Opusculs* for the correct one, *Principes*, the following entry was made:

"'Da Cunha (J. A.), Opusculs Mathématiques de Feu, traduits littéralement du Portugais, par J. M. D'Abreu. 8vo. Bordeaux, 1811.'

"The idea conveyed to a Frenchman by this title would not be very clear, but it might possibly be understood that this is an infamous book, deserving to be burnt. It is a fortunate thing for *feu* Mr. Da Cunha that this libel on his fair name was not published in his own country (he was a Portuguese) when he was living, and when the fashion was not only to burn books but authors; else, so dangerous an insinuation by the Royal Society of London might have exposed him to the chance of paying dearly for their blunders and bad French."

As the copying of the entire letter would require too much space, we refer

* The Life and Correspondence of Sir Anthony Panizzi, K. C. B., late Principal Librarian of the British Museum, Senator of Italy, etc. By Louis Fagan, of the Department of Prints and Drawings, British Museum. In two volumes. Authorized American edition, to which is appended a third volume containing twenty years' personal and bibliographical reminiscences of Panizzi and the British Museum, 1845-65, by Henry Stevens, of Vermont, F. S. A., M. A., etc. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. MDCCLXXXI.

our readers to pp. 121-26, vol. i., which contains these charges against the compiler of the catalogue of the Royal Society. Panizzi was never inclined to spare his enemies, and loved to measure rapier with those whom he fancied opposed to him in any manner. Like so many who fly from oppression, he himself loved to oppress, and none knew better how to drive the blade home, even though the foe was utterly unworthy of the steel. We read further that on one occasion whilst in search of a book he came on an entry of a French translation of one of Jeremy Bentham's works, in which the author's name, having been translated into French, was transferred in the same form, "Bentham (Jérôme)," into the catalogue, which was then being undertaken by Panizzi's superior officer, Sir Henry Ellis. Panizzi dryly remarked: "In propria venit, et sui eum non receperunt," the Vulgate translation of the verse in the first chapter of St. John. Mr. Fagan might, however, have here introduced the story of the assistant in the department of MSS. who distinguished himself by the freedom of his translations, one of which, and not the most amusing or curious, was the rendering of "journées caniculaires" (dog-days) into "Journeys by the Canals." That Panizzi was not generally popular is a well-known fact, but it was impossible for those who came in contact with him to refuse the just meed of praise to his inestimable official knowledge and firm maintenance of discipline. His knowledge of books taught him how to avoid that most terrible of delusions, a printed classed catalogue. The Bibliothèque Nationale of France may be quoted as an example of how difficult such an undertaking must ever be; if we remember rightly, twelve folio volumes, containing the titles of the works on French history, known as the class of the letter L, have already been published, and the end of this *magnum opus* seems to be yet in the dim distance. The reviewer well remembers giving an unfavorable opinion on this very subject to Panizzi, who heard it with a dry chuckle, and remarked: "I always told Taschereau so myself." Taschereau was the head librarian in Paris and favored the rival plan of a printed classed catalogue.

On the resignation of Sir Henry Ellis, Panizzi was appointed by the Queen principal librarian, March 6, 1856, and was thus enabled to mature a plan which he had always cherished—namely, better and more liberal accommodation for the many visitors to the reading-room of the British Museum. This end was effected by the building of the new reading-room, in itself one of the greatest curiosities of the British Museum and unsurpassed by any in Europe. On the 16th of June, 1866, Panizzi wrote his valedictory letter to his successor, after having served his adopted country long and faithfully. The Queen conferred upon him the distinction of K.C.B., and it is curious to note that in the same year that this reward was bestowed Brescello elected Sir Anthony Panizzi a member of the Italian Parliament.

We have as yet only considered Panizzi in his character of bibliographer. Many letters inserted from politicians of the day would lead us to infer that he very largely dabbled in politics, but as the questions mostly treated are those of the past, and, like the Spanish-marriages question, bear upon the policy of England and France, we satisfy ourselves by referring our readers to the volumes themselves. Panizzi's answers were verbose, his knowledge of politics being more foreign than English. The letters of most importance are those written by Cavour, Thiers, Gladstone (on the Neapolitan prisons), Palmerston, Lord Shrewsbury, and Prosper Mérimée. A letter from Lord Clarendon is amusing from the fact that it depicts in a few lines Thiers's estimation of England in the days previous to the Franco-German war. Lord Clarendon writes thus in relation to the French statesman: "He really flits about Europe like a flash of lightning, and if he means to know anything about this country and its inhabitants he ought not to come only for a week at the dearest time of the year; though, to be sure, that is only in harmony with his usual system. Don't you remember his famous note to Ellice when he (E.) was Secretary of the Treasury? 'Mon cher Ellice, je veux connaître à fond le système financier de l'Angleterre; quand pourrez-vous me donner cinq minutes?'"

As a biography the volumes before us contain many choice bits, but with much unnecessary padding, and in parts extravagant laudation which marks the 'prentice hand. The interspersed etchings and portraits are exceedingly life-like, and are valuable as portraits of a by-gone generation of men of more than average intellect. A slip informs us that a third volume, "by Mr. Henry Stevens, is in preparation, and will probably be issued some time this year." This volume may contain matter of more direct interest to the American public, as being the reminiscences of a gentleman well known both in this country and in England, and we look forward to its publication with assurance that the editor is thoroughly qualified for his task.

BLAIKIE'S LIVINGSTONE.*

IT is nearly eight years since Livingstone died, and, although perhaps no man's name occupied a more conspicuous place in the press and periodical literature of his day, yet this is the first biography of him at all worthy of

the subject. It makes no attempt to fix his place permanently in history, and indeed the final result of Livingstone's work cannot be fully determined for several years, or perhaps generations, to come. He was, beyond question, the foremost and most conspicuous of Central African travellers, and succeeded more than any other in drawing attention to that country, its people, its slave-trade, its geography, and its physical aspects, as well as its capabilities of development and civilization. In the author's opinion, "in the twentieth century Europe will make a world out of Africa." When that world is made, and generation after generation of intelligent Africans look back on its beginnings, as England looks back on the days of King Alfred, Ireland of St. Patrick, Scotland of St. Columba, or the United States of George Washington, the name that will be encircled by them with brightest honor is that of David Livingstone. This is by no means an impossible nor even an improbable prediction, yet it depends on an infinity of conditions and circumstances, and time alone can verify it and determine whether Livingstone shall stand out as the Columbus of a new world, or be lost in the midst of a numerous band of devoted men who have given their lives in an effort to extend Christianity.

Three great ideas dominated his career: First, the spread of the Gospel in Africa; second, the suppression of the slave-trade; third, geographical exploration; the last two growing imperceptibly but steadily out of his zeal for the first, but all three being retained in undiminished force to the day of his death. Yet he was no mere fanatic, in whose brain a single thought obscured all others to the defeat of its own purposes; on the contrary, he was singularly possessed of a trait for which missionaries are not renowned—a clear and logical perception of the relative value of things, and of the adaptation of means to ends. He thoroughly understood human nature, both civilized and uncivilized, and his tact, his combination of patience and courage, in dealing with the natives, was marvellous; he was a "handy" man in the bush, a good mechanic, could build a house, irrigate a farm, and do "many things else that would have been intolerable to a man of clerical dignity." He clearly perceived the value of medical skill as an aid to his preaching, and he therefore studied until he obtained his medical diploma before leaving England. No sooner had he arrived in the unknown country and become perforce an explorer, than he recognized the necessity of accurately recording his travels, and straightway he put himself under the instruction of Sir Thomas Maclear at the Cape, until he became an excellent field observer; so that that distinguished astronomer subsequently pronounced his astronomical work to be "the finest specimens of sound geographical observation he ever met with." As his travels continued he gave close attention to the geology, botany, and zoology of the country, to the delight of Professor Owen and other specialists, and by his unaided efforts made collections that would have done credit to a well-organized Government expedition. His notes and opinions on the political condition of the country, its possibilities of development and openings for trade, were equally exact and valuable, so that it is in a spirit not of exaggeration, but of a perfectly justifiable admiration, that the author observes: "Traveller, geographer, zoologist, astronomer, missionary, and mercantile director, did ever man sustain so many characters at once? Or did ever man perform the duties of each with such painstaking accuracy and so great success?"

But it is not so much with what Livingstone actually did that the present work deals as with what he thought. As the title, 'Personal Life,' indicates, it is a record of the great traveller as a man rather than of the deeds of his life that this book contains. Without attempting much psychological analysis, but in a plain and simple style of narrative, framed largely on private letters and other data hitherto unpublished, the author reveals most clearly the character of Livingstone, the intense religious faith which permeated every act of his life, his exact sense of justice, his earnestness of purpose, his unconquerable will, his disregard of comfort, the joyous enthusiasm of his earlier years, and the pathetic sadness of his later ones, when, beset on every side by difficulties, and the natural elasticity of his mind destroyed by years of sickness, he wonders "whether after all God is smiling on his work," and writes (Sept., 1870), "I have got no letters for years, save some, three years old, at Ujiji. I have an intense and sore longing to finish and retire, and trust that the Almighty may permit me to go home." The record of Livingstone's achievements has been given to the world in his own books, 'Missionary Travels,' 'The Zambesi and its Tributaries,' and the 'Last Journals.' In them we learn of geography, of the character of the natives, of the atrocities of the slave-trade, of the habits of various animals, together with many a thrilling narrative of danger and adventure which we should read half in doubt of its truth did it come from any one but Livingstone. But, as Dr. Blaikie clearly explains, in 'The Zambesi' and, to a certain extent, in the other two books, Livingstone felt that he was making an official report to the Government and the British people of the results obtained by expeditions to the conduct of which they had in part contributed, and with natural modesty he keeps himself and his inner thoughts in the background. Dr. Blaikie deals with what is there omitted, and in spite of the fact that the private letters of a man of religious fervor must always, in this age, appear somewhat

* 'The Personal Life of David Livingstone. By William Garden Blaikie, D.D., LL.D., New College, Edinburgh.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

bald in print, he unfolds before us a character of profound manliness such as has had few rivals in the world's history, and which compels our admiration at every page.

Though Livingstone lost his life while engaged in defining the watershed of Central Africa and fixing the sources of the Nile, yet the geographical problem was always secondary in his mind to the spread of the Gospel. He thought that "if he should solve that old problem he would acquire such influence that new weight would be given to his pleadings for Africa"; and he wrote, "If, indeed, my disclosures should lead to the suppression of the East Coast slave-trade, I would esteem that as a far greater feat than the discovery of all the sources together"; and again, summing up in one phrase the whole current of his thoughts, he said: "I could only feel in the way of duty by working as a missionary; . . . *the end of the geographical feat is only the beginning of the enterprise.*" The sadness of the letters during the last few years of his life may possibly be due to a realization of the limitations of one human life, possessed of no matter how high a purpose or how undaunted energy. Yet of all men he had the least cause to consider his life as having failed of its object, as the able summary in the last chapter of this book, entitled "Posthumous Influence," abundantly shows. Since his death, and as the result of his labors, the slave-trade on the East Coast has been greatly reduced in amount, although not wholly destroyed, while a "marvellous expansion" has been given to missionary enterprise. As an explorer he "travelled twenty-nine thousand miles in Africa, and added to the known part of the globe about a million square miles. . . . He strove after an accurate notion of the form and structure of the continent; investigated its geology, hydrography, botany, and zoölogy; and grappled with the two great enemies of man and beast that prey on it—fever and tsetse. Yet all these were matters apart from the great business of his life. . . . In glancing at these results of Livingstone's influence in the mission field, we must not forget that of all his legacies to Africa by far the highest was the spotless name and bright Christian character which have become associated everywhere with its great missionary explorer."

A Visit to Wazan, the Sacred City of Morocco. By Robert Spence Watson. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—The author excites curiosity, but adroitly disarms criticism, at the outset by presenting as a frontispiece a full-length engraving of himself in complete Moorish costume. The attitude denotes such perfect repose, and the face is so full of quiet satisfaction, that one is at a loss to know why he should have taken the trouble to write a book about anything, much less about Morocco. Nor does the wonder diminish upon an examination of the book itself. There is a tradition in a college town that a professor was once enquired of at an evening party as to the meaning of a word in Byzantine Greek. Turning to face his questioner, he slowly asked, "Madam, is this for information or for conversation?" And this is precisely the enquiry we should be inclined to put to the author, if we could see him in the flesh. The principal information which we gain from his pages is the not uninteresting fact that he went to Wazan, and even unto Ezaggen; but his chatty conversation about the going and the coming is for the most part entertaining. In fact, it might be very useful, in one way at least, to those who are to pass their next holidays among the Moors—namely, as a good example. There is not a hint of traveller's fault-finding from beginning to end. The author, apparently, went to be pleased and to please, and, therefore, he enjoyed and we enjoy the party at the Cherif's, when he burned magnesium ribbon and lighted colored fires to the delight of all the little Wazanites. Further, we may say, Mr. Watson was *easily* pleased. Thus: "It is the custom amongst Moors to keep the oil and butter which are to be used in cooking in sealed jars buried in the earth for long periods, sometimes as much as two years. They have no rancid flavor, but a smell and a taste which is quite their own. I soon got used to it, and almost to like it; but the taste to the last always recalled the smell of the shampooing room of a Turkish bath." Although he disclaims it, he appears to have derived considerable gratification from the amateur practice of medicine among the harmless people of the sacred city, especially in the administration of Seidlitz powders upon Dr. Leared's plan of dissolving each paper in separate half-tumblers of water, and giving them in rapid succession. The amateur practice of medicine must be a favorite mode of whiling away the time in Morocco, for we are told that the Cherifa in Tangiers "has instituted vaccination, and every Thursday her dining-room is filled with children of all ages to undergo the operation, which she performs." And again: "The day had been unusually hot. Mohammed said that it was like one of their hottest days in summer, and he and all of the men were much affected by the heat. Even Hadji left off joking. Before I turned in I dosed every man of them, and then took a solitary stroll in the beautiful night."

The following extract will show, perhaps as well as any other, the cheery way in which Mr. Watson met the discomforts of his journey:

"Indeed, the drink-question is a serious one to travellers in Morocco. It is rare to get water really good except amongst the mountains. We carried

with us a bag made out of the hide of a goat with the hair left upon it, and a large porous earthenware jar which we purchased for fourpence at Al Kasar. Both of these kept the water sweet and tolerably cool, but both gave it rather a peculiar taste. Then it was nearly always turbid to begin with, but a bit of alum placed in each vessel cured that, and I filtered all the water for drinking through a couple of filter-papers—a slow but tolerably effectual process. After all, I was often able only to drink it when boiled and with tea or coffee. At first this was trying, because there is nothing to put in its place; but I soon found the large ripe watermelons an excellent substitute for liquor, and we always carried a good stock of them with us. The men were not so particular. . . . It was almost worse with the bathing-water. At the back of my tent I had two canvas flaps, which when stretched out and pegged down made a sufficiently commodious bathroom. I carried one of Carter's excellent pocket-baths, and Souci made it ready for me each morning as soon as the word to rise was given. But it was hard to flesh and blood to get into it at times, for the water was like pea-soup. Still, bad washing-water is better than none in a hot country, and I never missed my bath" (p. 174).

It may be remembered that a very interesting account of a journey in Morocco, made in 1871 by Sir J. D. Hooker, was published in 1878. In that tour the great Atlas range, lying far to the south, was visited and described; Mr. Watson's journey was confined to North Morocco. Both observers agree in deploring the existing oppression by the authorities in certain districts, and they concur in the opinion that little relief can come from within. Mr. Watson found the people honest and attractive, and his journey a charming rest. That he carried with him a kindly spirit in his wanderings among the people is seen in the closing words of his note-book:

"Let us speak of men as we find them. I have seen something 'of all sorts and conditions' of men in many lands. I have found that most men are disposed to treat you better than you are conscious that you deserve, and that the inhabitants of Morocco are no exception to the rule. If a man travels there as he would elsewhere, remembering that he is the stranger and that the people are at home, treating them as he would treat Europeans under similar circumstances, prepared to rough it at times and to abandon the privilege and duty of grumbling for a season, I do not doubt that he will find, as I did, the land a goodly land, the people an honest and kindly people, both alike suffering and wasting away under a miserable government."

Ricordi della vita di Enrico Heine. Per sua nipote Maria Embden-Heine, Principessa della Rocca. (Florence: 1880.)—This volume contains nothing particularly new or interesting concerning Heine's inner life, or the development of his genius, or much that cannot be found in Strodttmann's biography, or in the personal reminiscences and letters which Meissner, Laube, Kolb, and others of the poet's friends have published from time to time. But readers who like to look at the life of a distinguished man from the point of view of his *valet de chambre*, to whom nobody is said to be a hero, will find here something at least amusing. Heine's answer to a Bavarian princess who was curious to make his acquaintance, and invited him to take a cup of coffee with her after dinner, is characteristic of the good opinion which he entertained of his own dignity: "Give my most humble respects to her Royal Highness," he said to the courtier who brought him the verbal invitation of the princess, "but I always take my coffee where I take my dinner." Not less characteristic is the reply he gave to his uncle, Salomon Heine, the great Hamburg banker, who treated him during the whole of his life with more than fatherly kindness and generosity. When Heine returned from London in 1827, and his uncle reproached him with his extravagance in money matters, and found fault with him for having exhausted his letter of credit within a few weeks, the nephew naively observed: "Well, uncle, the greatest piece of luck you can boast of is that you bear the same name that I do."

Madame della Rocca supplies interesting details regarding the origin of some of Heine's most celebrated poems. The "Pilgrimage to Kevlaar," "Du bist wie eine Blume," and many others of his best-known effusions received their inspiration from circumstances which occurred within the immediate circle of his relations and friends. It is information like this which gives its chief value to the book. Madame della Rocca, who married an Italian nobleman and a Catholic, takes great pains to notify her readers that her uncle was a Christian, and not a Jew. This seems rather superfluous when celebrating a man who entertained such liberal and cosmopolitan views in politics and religion. Almost simultaneously with this biographical sketch three letters of Heine's were published in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, addressed to Dr. Kolb, one of the editors of that venerable journal. "I belong to no party," writes Heine, "neither Republican nor Royalist, neither Christian nor Jew. I hope I have written not for enthusiastic moments, but for centuries; not for one country, but for the world; not for a race, but for mankind." Heine was born of Jewish parents on the 1st of January, 1800—he loved to call himself the first German of his century, forgetting that the century he had in mind began with 1801—and it was not until 1825 that, for motives only known to himself, he embraced the Christian religion. But he never forgot his origin. In 1849 he wrote to Campe, his best friend and publisher: "I am a poor sick Jew, loaded with the

double curse of sickness and Judaism." There is not a chapter in his prose works in which he does not refer either with gentle pity or cold cynicism, according to his mood, to the down-trodden race that suffered so much in Lutheran Germany during the early part of this century.

Madame della Rocca loses her temper when she speaks of Mathilde Mirrat, Heine's widow, who is living in Paris at this moment. She describes her as a handsome, frivolous, extravagant woman, who chose her husband as she would choose a parrot or a poodle; whose only merit was her irrepressible good humor, which never failed to cheer the poet, even in moments of excruciating bodily pain, during the terrible illness which chained him to a bed of sickness—"a matted coffin" he calls it—for more than seven years. But when the death-struggle came Mathilde was quietly asleep in the next room, and awoke only to find her husband cold on his bed of suffering.

Throughout this sketch a prominent place is given to Heine's financial quarrels with his publisher, Campe; with his family, particularly with the heirs of old Salomon Heine, who, after this kind relative's death, disputed the allowance which, during his lifetime, he had made to his erratic yet beloved nephew; with his brother Maximilian and others. It is a pity that the image of the man who, as the author of the "Buch der Lieder," has gained one of the foremost places among lyric poets of all ages and all countries, should be dimmed by considerations of so sordid and worldly a nature. The whole truth about Heine may never be known. His brother Maximilian, who died about a year ago in Vienna, is said to have destroyed before his death hundreds of the poet's letters; and the so-called 'Memoirs,' written by himself and reported to be buried in the archives of the Austrian Government, are in all probability apocryphal.

Memoirs of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America. By the Right Rev. William White. Edited, with notes and a sketch of the Origin and Progress of the Colonial Church, by the Rev. B. F. De Costa. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—These 'Memoirs' are a classic history of the beginnings of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. It was a piece of remarkable good fortune that Bishop White should himself be the historian of a development of which his character was the initial force, and to whose continuance he contributed so much of practical wisdom and moderation. Described, as a preacher, as "dignified without animation," this description holds good of his style of writing and of his personal appearance, judging from the engraving of his face which fronts the title-page. It is after a portrait by Sully, and its exceeding gentleness does not disguise those traits of pertinacity and shrewdness which were so characteristic of the man. Notwithstanding the value set upon his 'Memoirs' by his co-religionists, the present is the first edition of them published since his death, shortly before which the second edition was published in 1836. Its value is greatly increased over the previous editions by a carefully prepared monograph of some sixty pages on the origin and progress of the Episcopal Church in the colonial times by Mr. De Costa, whose antiquarian studies made him eminently fit for the task. This writer has a thesis to maintain, which is that the Episcopal Church of the colonial period had a much more honorable history than is commonly allowed. He has been less successful here than in presenting an exceedingly interesting mass of facts. He has no difficulty in establishing the priority of his church to other English churches in America, but he has not succeeded so well in proving a paramount influence in certain instances. No doubt the antagonism of the early Massachusetts settlers to the Church of England was less pronounced in the inception of both the Plymouth and the Boston enterprises than the orators at our New England dinners generally admit, the Pilgrim Fathers being less strenuous in their opposition to the Mother Church than the Boston and Salem colonists; but here is no sufficient ground for transferring to the Church of England all the credit of these various settlements. Mr. De Costa tells us that had the colonies of Endicott and Winthrop taken, before sailing, the independent position they assumed soon after their arrival, they would not have been permitted to sail. The negative honor thus redounding to the English Church is but slight, and deducts little, if anything, from the fame of those who developed an ecclesiastical polity of their own in the New World. The Episcopal Church in the United States is now so flourishing that it is only natural that it should wish to magnify its day of small things. Mr. De Costa has done his best, but the picture which he has drawn will be retouched in several places by bolder and less friendly hands. He has not sufficiently indicated the exotic character of his church in the colonial times, especially in New England, nor the elements of moral weakness that handicapped it in the more southern colonies in its race with other churches. White was a notable exception to the average quality of his fellow-clergymen in his steadfast devotion to the colonial cause, of which devotion his chaplaincy to the Continental Congress was an appropriate symbol. The majority of his fellow-clergymen were loyal to the crown. Many of them fled the country, which in many places, it must be confessed, was made too hot for them by the ardor of the rebellious colonists. The church was almost

extinguished by the war, and its resuscitation is, therefore, all the more creditable to Bishop White and his little company of coadjutors.

Mr. De Costa enters into more detail in his account of the King's Chapel (Boston) controversy than anywhere else. He reflects severely on the Unitarian party that kept the church building for the uses of an expurgated liturgy. The Rev. H. W. Foote, the present minister of King's Chapel, has been for many years at work upon the history of the church, and his results may affect in some degree those of Mr. De Costa. It may be remarked here that the transposition of a phrase on page xlv. would improve the sense. The sentence reads, as it now stands: "This brings us to an event which should be touched upon, the loss of this building to the Protestant Episcopal Church which was rebuilt of stone."

An Abridged History of England, and Condensed Chronology, from the Time of the Ancient Britons to the Reign of Queen Victoria, with a Synopsis of England in the Nineteenth Century, its Government, Institutions, etc. Compiled by Archibald Hamilton McCalman. (New York. 1880. 8vo, pp. 669.)—The term "compiled by," on the title-page, and the explanation of the origin and object of this book given in the short preface, show that it is not to be regarded as an original work in historical literature, but as a series of memoranda or abstracts made in reading. This accounts for a certain scrappiness of effect, and for the number of short paragraphs, often eight or nine on a page—an unpleasant feature in reading a connected work, but natural and not offensive in a book which is intended to "serve as an index." Even for this purpose, however, there is a serious defect in the lack of any system of grouping or registering the detached facts. The several paragraphs on a page may treat of as many distinct topics, or may be devoted to a smaller number—may, indeed, really all belong to one head; but the reader must find this out for himself. Again, there are no subdivisions, no marginal index, no running titles except the name of the king and the year, no tables of any sort. All these things a connected narrative can dispense with; but even here they are welcome (consider the completeness of Mr. Freeman's aids to his readers), and in a book that is to serve for consultation they are indispensable.

The general plan of the book is simple and convenient. It is divided by reigns, and the chronological order is followed with care, but there is nothing to guide the eye except the date at the top of the page; the family and descendants of the several kings are not tabulated, but given in a list, so that the successive generations are not readily distinguished; contemporary sovereigns are simply enumerated, without even the date of accession. If Mr. McCalman would make his book really useful for purposes of reference, he should put the leading events and the contemporary sovereigns in the form of a chronological table, and in the text divide the years distinctly from one another, bringing into one paragraph the events that belong together, so as not to confuse by the multiplicity of unessential divisions. His book might then be very serviceable. There are, however, defects arising from the manner of compilation which it would be hard to remedy; besides the scrappiness spoken of, there is sometimes an omission, as where Hampden's trial is not mentioned in connection with ship-money; and sometimes a brief note, intelligible to the person who made it, conveys no meaning to the reader, as (p. 352): "Parliament [in 1642] passed a Militia Act which amounted to an Army Act." The reign of Richard II. is said (p. 177) to have been "a remarkable period in the constitutional history of England"; and so it was, but this book gives no evidence of the fact beyond the statement. There are three good maps, a portrait of Queen Victoria, and an appendix containing a sketch of the Government of England, with a very useful additional feature, a complete list of the peerage. A few other lists might very well have been added, e.g., the prime ministers, lord chancellors, etc., and a list of the members of the present Parliament.

Quellen und Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte der Stadt Florenz. Herausgegeben von Otto Hartwig. Zweiter Theil. (Halle: Max Niemeyer. 1880. 4to of 328 pp.)—All students of Florentine history will be glad to hear that O. Hartwig has been able to finish his remarkable edition of the old chronicles of Florence which he himself partly discovered. The first volume, of only 138 pages, was published in 1875, and contained the 'Gesta Florentinorum Sanzanonis' and the 'Chronica de Origine Civitatis,' with a copious commentary, to which the author had added a history of Florence up to the twelfth century, for the first time elucidating fully the history of the beginnings of the city. To-day Hartwig gives us the 'Annales Florentini' of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the first containing 18, the second 47 notes in Latin on the principal events of the time, which the editor explains abundantly and subjects to a minute and most severe historical criticism. The Registers of the Consuls and Podestàs of Florence from 1166 (or more accurately from 1170) till 1282 form a further and most useful addition to our knowledge of the early history of Florence; but the author has abstained from composing out of these dry materials a history of the twelfth and thir-

teenth centuries up to the revolution of 1250 or that of 1282, which might have formed a continuation of his essay in the first volume, because he thinks these three sources still quite insufficient, as they contain so little on the inner development of Florence. The so-called 'Chronicle of Brunetto Latini,' whose existence was known but which had hitherto escaped all researches, was discovered finally by Hartwig, who gives us here a first edition of it, with ample proof that it cannot be attributed to the author of the 'Tesoretto.' This remarkable piece of history, the first written in vulgar Italian, comprises the epoch from 1181 to 1303, with many gaps, and treats only at some length of the famous Buondelmonte-Amidei incident of 1215 and the Aretine war of 1287-1292. The principal work, however, given by Hartwig in his new volume is the famous 'Gesta Florentinorum,' which were the common source of all the Florentine chroniclers, and especially of Villani, for the early part of their history. They begin in 1080, and with their continuation extend as far as 1308 to the death of the famous Corso Donati. It is useless to say that Hartwig comments lengthily upon the date of composition and the authorship of these chronicles, as well as on the different manuscripts from which he has taken them, and on the relationship they bear to other and later chronicles; and that he tries to put in the right light their bearing upon our knowledge of the real history of Florence. An appendix gives a very vivid picture, from the pen of Hartwig himself, on a "Mobilization in Florence and the Battle of Montaperti," based on the 'Libretto detto di Montaperti,' and the Sienese chronicle of the battle. A very careful and complete alphabetic index and a most accurate map of Florence at the end of the thirteenth century—i.e., Dante's time—are very welcome additions to this volume, for which scholars cannot be too thankful to the learned author, and which are models of correctness and intelligent criticism. Its place, indeed, is marked in every historical library, and the service done by it to the students of mediæval history cannot be rated too high.

Practical School of Vocal Culture. By Gottlieb Federlein. (New York: G. Schirmer. 1880. 4to, pp. 100.)—One of the first impressions produced by the perusal of the 'School' is that Mr. Federlein is a born pedagogue. He has a remarkably clear and precise notion of what he means to do, and how he means to do it. The book is intended to teach neither the elements of music nor the anatomy of the vocal organs. A knowledge of the details of musical notation is taken for granted, and the use, not the construction, of the vocal machinery is the object of the treatise. The book contains about two hundred exercises, with very clear directions for their use. When, in any given case, Mr. Federlein has told the pupil what to do, he is equally explicit in telling him what to avoid. It would hardly be necessary to go outside the book to make a complete list of the faults of singers. Great care is bestowed upon the treatment of what the author calls "the break." A specific example will, perhaps, best explain the nature of this curious defect. A singer may give the notes *a, b, c, d* perfectly clear and true, but on trying *e* the note will be produced so imperfectly that the hearer supposes the singer has reached the limit of his range. Not so, for on trying *f* and *g* they will be given true and pure. The physiological causes of this phenomenon are very obscure. Mr. Federlein does not meddle with them, neither does he devote a separate chapter to the subject. He lays siege to it through a large part of his work, and endeavors so to construct his exercises that when the book is finished the defect will no longer exist. The author is evidently as well acquainted with the theory as the practice of music. Thus, on page 42 is a series of harmonic sequences intended to illustrate the different "tone-colors," so far as it can be done on so imperfect an instrument as the piano. None but a person well acquainted with modern musical theories, and confident of his own knowledge of technical rules, would have ventured upon the experiment. Those persons who have already made considerable progress in the art of singing will derive most advantage from the use of this work.

A Daring Voyage across the Atlantic Ocean. By two Americans, the Brothers Andrews. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—Within the last few years several voyages in small boats have been made across the Atlantic; that of the Brothers Andrews was performed in the smallest of all. The facts of the voyage as given in the log kept by William Andrews are such as of themselves excite the incredulity of the reader, but there is no question that the *Nautilus* actually crossed the ocean, and no doubt has ever been thrown, so far as we are aware, upon the good faith of the two hardy sailors who went over in her. The boat was 19 feet long, 6 feet 7 inches beam, and was originally nothing more nor less than what is known in New England waters as a dory—that is, a flat-bottomed fisherman's boat, which can be rowed or sailed, with shear sides, and of unusual depth for a flat-bottomed boat. She was decked over from stem to stern, with two small hatchways, one amidships and the other aft for the man at the helm; and for sails she had a lateen-sail for ordinary weather and a storm-sail to be used when hove-to. In this little boat Captain Andrews and his brother crossed from Boston to Bishop's Rock Light-house in forty-five days, less one hour

and a half. The log will be found interesting by any one who is fond of boating or adventure, though, of course, it is little more than an outline of the voyage. The volume has an introduction by Dr. McCaulay, who has something to say about other trips across the Atlantic and marine disasters. The smallest boat that had ever crossed the Atlantic before the *Nautilus* was Captain Crapo's *New Bedford*. She was a boat of about two tons burden, with two masts and schooner rigged; the voyage was made interesting by the fact that the captain was accompanied by his wife. The *Nautilus* was exhibited after the voyage at the Paris Exhibition, and afterwards in London and in Brighton.

A Naval Encyclopedia, comprising a Dictionary of Nautical Words and Phrases, Biographical Notices and Records of Naval Officers, Special Articles on Naval Art and Science, together with Descriptions of the Principal Seaports and Naval Stations of the World. (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co. 1881.)—This work is unique of its kind, uniting as it does in a single volume the several features enumerated in the title, and is intended as a standard authority on naval subjects. It seems, however, to have been hastily put together, and bears marks of the want of a critical and intelligent supervision in the selection of articles published. Many of the articles are excellent. Terse and pithy treatises on technical subjects by writers fully up to their work abound; but side by side with these appear articles so wretched as fully to justify the criticism just made. Where there is so much to praise and so much to blame it would be unfair to select any articles as especially noteworthy, but a single example may make our meaning plain. An excellent article on Navigation is followed by others equally good under the heads of Navy, Navy-Yards, etc. Then comes an article on the Nebular Hypothesis which is so bad that it would be silly to undertake a serious criticism of it. These contrasts occur throughout. Again, in spite of a brief supplementary record of every living naval officer, the *Encyclopædia* proper is loaded with biographical notices of living officers who have no other claim to celebrity than flag-rank, attained, for the most part, by dint of longevity and inactivity, as their printed lives show. And yet we look in vain in the columns of this book for such traditional names as Percival, Lavalette, or Paulding. Some of the slang of the fore-castle and steerage is given, with many insignificant, trivial, and obscure words and phrases, which had much better have been left out. In short, the mixture is such that the reviewer is at a loss, in treating the work as a whole, whether to commend or to censure. Perhaps, on the whole, the good predominates in it. It is handsomely made, with clear type and good paper, and is sold at a very reasonable price.

Sanskrit and its Kindred Literatures. Studies in Comparative Mythology. By Laura Elizabeth Poor. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1880.)—The publishers' notice informs us that this book is made up of lectures delivered by the author, in or about Boston, and received with great enthusiasm by those who heard them. That is not impossible, since even in a cultivated community are easily to be found persons quite ignorant respecting many of the subjects here treated, little critical as to the quality or authority of the information set before them, and roused to interest by vague and high-sounding doctrines, presented with fervor. Miss Poor may have done some real good by exciting in one and another mind an appetite which has led to a search after more satisfying food. But it was a mistake to print the lectures, for they have no quality that could justify their being set before the general public. They are simply trashy, the outcome of considerable superficial information, but of hardly any real knowledge, and still less critical insight and sound judgment. The unity of all literature, the universality of the sun-myth, the supreme importance of Sanskrit language and religion, are themes that call for a very different treatment from this, if anything valuable or even sensible is to be brought out of them. Blunders of every kind and degree abound; and the crudeness or the *naïveté* of the statements made is often beyond belief.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Campbell (Archbishop), The Church of the Future.....	(Macmillan & Co.) \$1 00
Da Costa (Dr. J. M.), Medical Diagnosis, 5th ed.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dana (Prof. E. S.), Text-book of Elementary Mechanics.....	(John Wiley & Sons)
Dowden (Prof. E.), Shakespeare: a Critical Study of his Mind and Art.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Edwards (Dr. J. F.), Bright's Disease.....	(Presley Blackiston)
Farrer (J. A.), Adam Smith.....	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Forster (C. T.) and Daniell (F. H. B.), Life and Letters of Ogier Ghiselin de Busbecq, 2 vols.....	(C. Regan Paul & Co.)
Heart and its Function.....	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Holden (Prof. E. S.), Sir William Herschel.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)
"H. H.," A Century of Dishonor.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Hunt (Mrs. A. W.), The Posy Ring: a Tale, swd.....	10
Kalthrunner (D.), Aide-Memoire du Voyageur.....	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Motteux (P. A.), History of the Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha, 2 vols.....	(J. W. Bouton)
"Ouida," A Village Commune: a Tale.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Procter (R. A.), Poetry of Astronomy.....	1 25
Russell (C.), New Views on Ireland, 2d ed.....	(Macmillan & Co.)
Seward (G. F.), Chinese Immigration.....	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)
S-gond (L.), La Sainte Bible, traduite sur les Textes Originaux.....	2 50
Shore (H. N.), The Flight of the <i>Lafwing</i>	(Thos. Nelson & Sons)
Troilope (A.), Life of Cicero, 2 vols.....	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Weeks (R. K.), Poems.....	(Harper & Bros.)
Warren (Prof. S. E.), Elementary Projection Drawing, 5th ed.....	(Henry Holt & Co.)
	2 50
	(John Wiley & Sons)

